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Assessing the Feasibility of International Branch Campuses

Factors Universities Consider when Establishing Campuses Abroad

Megan Clifford

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Executive Summary

International branch campuses (IBCs) – degree-granting higher education institutions (HEIs) located in different countries than the HEIs that originated or operate them – are an important and growing part of the international higher education landscape. Unfortunately, little guidance about the process of establishing an IBC exists to help decision-makers at parent institutions determine whether or not to pursue a particular opportunity.

To address this gap, this dissertation addresses two research questions:

- What are the steps in the decision-making process HEIs go through when making decisions regarding whether or not to establish an IBC?

- What key factors do HEIs use to evaluate a potential IBC?

This research draws upon existing education and business management literature as well as primary data gathered through 38 interviews with decision-makers representing 26 IBCs and 11 parent institutions.

The analysis of the interviews suggests there are five stages in the process of establishing an IBC: **consideration; gathering support; opportunity identification; screening, decision-making and planning**.

- During the **consideration** stage, leaders and administrators think about the pros and cons of establishing IBCs within the context of their institutions' goals. Goals for the parent institution include enhancing the parent institution's reputation; creating research and academic opportunities; gaining access to student markets; altruism; and financial gain.

- During the **gathering support** stage, parent institution leaders work to gather support for the proposed IBC by engaging and fostering stakeholder buy-in; allocating funding and staffing to support the IBC; bolstering ties with potential host countries; and rearticulating the parent institution's mission to justify the IBC.

- During **the opportunity identification** stage, institutions work to identify potential opportunities that are economically and academically viable. Parent institutions identify most opportunities through the university's existing

relationships and partnerships. They almost always work with partners, rarely pursuing IBCs completely independently.

- During the **screening, decision-making and planning** stage, decision-makers consider whether or not they would be locating in a hub or away from other IBCs; host country government regulations; host country business culture; preferences of parent institution leaders; host country infrastructure; host country economic issues and the sustainability of academic programs.

- During the **operationalization** stage, institutions consider additional course program and planning; sources for recruiting faculty and staff, attracting and retaining faculty and staff; and how to ensure the quality of faculty and staff.

Analysis of the interview data as a whole also revealed some larger themes. Specifically, the study found that:

- **Establishing an IBC is a non-linear, iterative process**. While the overall momentum was forward, the process of establishing an IBC was characterized by significant back stepping, overlap, and repetition.

- **Establishing an IBC is not an entirely rational process**. Interviewees noted that the process is typically the result of several chance events and influenced by non-rational factors such as idiosyncratic leadership preferences.

- **The decision-making process varies among institutions**. At some institutions, the decision to establish an IBC was primarily a top-down process, while at others the decision-making process involved multiple stakeholders. Institutions also differed markedly in how they obtained information and their level of due diligence.

- **The role of specific factors varies by opportunity**. It is important for parent institutions to consider the unique social, cultural, political, economic, and academic factors relevant to each country when establishing an IBC to increase its chances of success.

- **The long-term impact of IBCs is unknown**. While leaders and administrators at institutions cited specific objectives for establishing an IBC such as enhancing their institution's reputation, there is little to no evidence about whether IBCs

actually achieve these goals or are better at achieving these goals than less costly and less risky alternatives.

- **IBCs are inherently risky**. It is ultimately impossible to understand and control for all the risks involved in establishing an IBC. Instead, IBCs require risk-tolerance and decision-making based on imperfect information.

- **Establishing an IBC is time intensive.** Institutions need be aware of the indirect costs to the parent institution in terms of staff time and salaries even if partners pay the IBC's operating expenses.

While this study identified several factors universities consider when establishing an IBC, much work still remains. Additional research on specific ways HEIs with different characteristics approach the decision-making process and whether and how these factors lead to positive long-term impacts for IBCs, for example, would be valuable.

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Abbreviations

HEI	Higher Education Institution
IBC	International Branch Campus
OBHE	Observatory for Borderless Higher Education

Chapter One: Background, Purpose, and Research Questions

Overview

International branch campuses (IBCs) – degree-granting higher education institutions (HEIs) located in different countries than the HEIs that originated or operate them – are an important and growing part of the international higher education landscape (Lawton & Katsomitros, 2012). But for HEIs and other stakeholders involved in the establishment of an IBC, setting up an IBC is not easy and the stakes are high.

The academic literature on the decision-making process related to the establishment of IBCs is limited. We don't know a lot about the process or definitively what makes for a successful IBC development effort. As a result, HEIs beginning the development process for the first time don't find a lot of guidance in the literature.

The purpose of the research described in this dissertation is to address this gap in the literature by describing the process that HEIs go through and the factors they consider when establishing IBCs. This research draws upon existing education and business management literature as well as primary data gathered through interviews with university leaders, administrators, and faculty. It uses the results of the research to propose a new conceptual framework for future decision-makers such as administrators at universities considering opening an IBC to help guide their decision-making process.

Background

Increased globalization in recent decades has affected a wide range of industries and institutions all over the world, including higher education. Several HEIs worldwide have extended their influence through international partnerships, joint ventures, and franchising. While these and other partnerships have their benefits, more and more institutions are opting to expand and diversify their networks through the establishment of IBCs in strategic locations. Unlike many arrangements in which institutions have only limited control over academic programs and student services, IBCs give institutions opportunities for greater autonomy and for providing the in-depth programs and services that their student populations demand.

Setting up an IBC, however, is not easy. The social, cultural, political, academic, and economic environments often differ dramatically between parent and host nations, and higher education services are hardly ever easily replicable across borders. What works at the HEI's home campus, or "parent institution," may not be effective at the IBC. These circumstances pose several challenges for leaders at HEIs such as the president, vice president, chancellor, senior administrators, deans, department heads, and Boards of Governors or Boards of Regents, who are responsible for deciding whether or not to open an IBC, where to locate an IBC, how to staff it, and the development of academic programs.

The stakes, moreover, are high. Parent institutions and host nations often invest significant financial resources in building facilities, hiring staff, and recruiting students. Failure to meet projected enrollment and revenue targets can be financially devastating. The closure of the University of New South Wales in Singapore due to low student enrollment after just two months of operation, for instance, cost the parent institution approximately $38 million, about 3.5 percent of its total endowment (University of New South Wales, 2012). IBC closures are also highly publicized in the media and can have long-lasting impacts on a parent institution's reputation, particularly in the international arena (Marcus, 2011). Even in the absence of complete failure, the establishment of an IBC that is perceived by the academic community as a low-quality institution may threaten a university's reputation. University officials do not take such risks lightly given the strong role a university's reputation has in its ability to attract high-quality students and faculty.

Students also suffer when IBCs are closed. Following the announcement of the closure of New York University's Tisch Asia in Singapore, students expressed concern over how they were to complete their education without too much disruption, additional financial strain, drop in quality, or damage to their credentials that would affect future employment opportunities (Schlanger, 2013).

Recognizing these risks, university officials are becoming increasingly sophisticated about the evaluation they perform before establishing IBCs. While previously many IBCs were established with little to no research, an increasing number of parent institutions are now conducting research and feasibility studies before they commit to the establishment

of an IBC. Unfortunately, institutions conducting such studies often do not share the results of their assessments due to their sensitive and proprietary nature and decision-makers at other institutions don't have the opportunity to benefit from the information uncovered in these studies.

The academic literature on the decision-making process related to the establishment of IBCs is also limited. While research on IBCs has grown significantly over the past five years and scholars at organizations such as the Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) and the International Centre for Higher Education Management (ICHEM) have made substantial steps forward in collecting rich data on IBCs through site visits, interviews with policymakers and parent institution leaders, literature reviews, and analyses of media reports, the actual process universities go through is still underexplored and poorly understood.

Purpose of the Study and Its Significance

The primary purpose of this study is to outline the steps parent institutions go through when establishing IBCs and identify the factors most important to the decision-making process. The study is based on extensive review of the existing literature and one-on-one interviews with decision-makers at select institutions that have established or are planning to establish IBCs. The study uses this information to produce a new conceptual framework that describes the process of developing an IBC from inception to operation. The primary evidence provided in this study also contributes confirmatory evidence and new findings on topics not fully covered in the existing literature, such as the motivations for establishing IBCs and managerial challenges at IBCs, although this contribution was not the main focus of the study.

The study benefits three main stakeholder groups. First, it will help parent institutions avoid financial losses, damage to their reputations, and blows to morale, trust, and confidence that come with a failed IBC. Secondly, it serves host nations, most of which are developing countries that contribute public funds they can't afford to lose into building IBCs. Finally, it serves students at IBCs by increasing the potential for students to receive a high-quality and undisrupted education.

In addition, the conceptual framework developed in this study is meant to provide a useful foundation for future research regarding the decision-making process at IBCs.

Research Questions

To fulfill the study's purpose, I addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the steps in the decision-making process HEIs go through when making decisions regarding whether or not to establish an IBC?
2. What key factors do HEIs use to evaluate a potential IBC?

The purpose of the first research question is to explore the *process* HEIs follow when making a decision about whether or not to open an IBC. (The HEIs that establish IBCs are usually universities, but colleges and other HEIs also establish IBCs. I use "HEI," "university," and "parent institution" interchangeably in this dissertation). The research question seeks to identify the specific steps in the decision-making process (gathering data, looking at costs, interviewing people in the host country, etc.) as well as similarities and differences in the process among different institutions. It focuses on the actual process decision-makers go through and the order in which the steps occur.

The aim of the second research question is to identify the *factors* that would persuade an HEI to open an IBC (low costs, political stability, etc.) and the factors that would dissuade an HEI from opening an IBC (high costs, political instability in the host country, etc.). I am also interested in understanding how various characteristics of an institution might or might not be a good fit in a foreign country, and how "fit" might change as the combination of parent institution and host country changes. Finally, I am interested in exploring how HEIs might adapt to fit the host countries they are interested in.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into seven chapters. This chapter, Chapter One, presents the problem statement, purpose, significance, and research questions of the study. Chapter Two summarizes the research to date on IBCs, including the motivations for establishing IBCs and the advantages and disadvantages of IBCs for the primary stakeholders—parent institutions, host nations, and students.

In Chapter Three, I develop the foundations for the decision-making process at parent institutions that are considering IBCs and propose a conceptual framework based upon the existing literature. The methodology for the study is described in Chapter Four, which also provides details about the research design, selection of the sample for conducting interviews, data collection tasks, and data analysis procedures. The findings of the research are presented in Chapter Five. The conceptual model proposed in Chapter Three is revisited in Chapter Six and revised based on the research findings. The final chapter, Chapter Seven, discusses the implications of the research and its findings and suggests further research. The full interview protocol, codebook, and other relevant supporting documents are included in the appendices.

Chapter Two: What the Literature Tells us About IBCs

Overview

A growing body of literature has emerged in recent years focused on issues related to the establishment of IBCs. These predominately qualitative studies address, for example, the motivations for establishing IBCs, the advantages and disadvantages of IBCs for parent institutions, host countries, and students, and their associated risks and managerial challenges. Several opinion pieces critique the IBC idea. Some existing research describes the general IBC market and offers data regarding the number of IBCs, the number of students studying at them, and tuition rates.

This chapter summarizes the findings of the literature review I conducted for this study. The intent of the chapter is to provide some background information about IBCs, familiarize readers with the issues that parent institutions face when they consider establishing IBCs, and help readers contextualize the findings and implications of my study when I describe them in Chapters Five through Seven. Accordingly, the chapter is meant to be informational rather than critical. It presents - without judgment or further analysis - the body of literature that exists on this topic.

The chapter is organized to summarize information on the following questions, which have been to varying extents addressed in the IBC literature thus far:

- What is an IBC?
- How many IBCs are there, how fast is the number of IBCs growing, and where are they located?
- What motivates parent institutions to establish IBCs?
- What are the benefits of IBCs for parent institutions, host countries, and students?
- What are the arguments against IBCs?
- What are the criticisms of IBCs?
- What challenges do parent institutions face in managing IBCs?

The literature that describes conceptual frameworks scholars have used to analyze IBCs will be discussed in Chapter Three, "Building a Conceptual Framework."

What is an IBC?

There are several definitions of an IBC, each of which varies slightly in areas such as governance and the extent of academic offerings. The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) defines an IBC as "an HEI that is located in another country from the institution which either originated it or operates it, with some physical presence in the host country, and which awards at least one degree in the host country that is accredited in the country of the originating institution" (Lawton & Katsomitros, 2012).

Offering a slightly different definition, Lane and Kinser (2011) explain that an IBC is "an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; engages in at least some face-to-face teaching; and provides access to an entire academic program that leads to a credential awarded by the foreign education provider."

The American Council on Education (2009) offers yet another definition, describing an IBC as an institution that (1) rents or owns educational facilities in a country outside of the home country; (2) offers degree courses in more than one field of study and is where students take most of their courses and finish their degree; (3) provides degrees that bear the parent institution's name alone or jointly with a partner institution; (4) primarily provides face-to-face instruction; and (5) has permanent administrative staff.

Despite the slight differences among the three definitions of an IBC, all agree that an IBC must have a parent institution from which the academic standards and materials will come, a host country where the operations will be facilitated, a "brick and mortar presence" (Marginson, Kaur & Sawir, 2011) in that it has a physical structure to support its operations, a team of educators and support staff who will run the campus, and a degree or certification bearing the name of the parent institution.

IBCs are different from other modes of transnational higher education delivery such as distance and online learning which use the Internet as the main platform of communication and teaching (Lawton & Katsomitros, 2012). They also offer more extensive programs relative to many other forms of transnational higher education programs such as international study abroad campuses, which offer only limited academic courses and do not award degrees. Notably, while IBCs offer parent institutions the opportunity for greater control over the selection of programs offered as well as the

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quality of the programs, they also expose institutions to higher level of risk due to the significant investments required to build, buy, or lease buildings, send parent institution faculty and staff to the host country as needed, and hire qualified local faculty and staff (Shams & Huisman, 2012).

How Many IBCs are There, How Fast is the Number of IBCs Growing, and Where are They Located?

The rate of establishment of IBCs in numerous countries across the globe has increased in recent years. Figures from the OBHE report show that in 2009, there were "a global total of 162 campuses in 51 countries" (Fielden & Gillard, 2011). Since that report, an additional 38 campuses were constructed, for a total of about 200 IBCs as of the writing of this dissertation. Some 37 additional institutions are scheduled to open in the next few years (Lawton & Katsomitros, 2012).

The geographic reach of IBCs is also expanding. While IBCs were initially concentrated in areas such as Europe and the Middle East, by late 2011, they occupied 67 host countries with some of the newest located in countries such as Afghanistan, Botswana, Croatia, India, Indonesia, and Kosovo (OBHE, 2012; Maringe & Foskett, 2010). They also represented 24 different home countries, with the majority of parent institutions in the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia (Fielden & Gillard, 2011).

In terms of student numbers, although study abroad is still the primary means through which students pursue cross-border education, student enrolment at IBCs has also risen dramatically over the last two decades (Knight, 2007). According to the OBHE, the total number of students from a sample of 90 of the 200 IBCs in the academic year 2010-2011 was 77,448, of which 48,871 were undergraduates, 12,835 were postgraduates, and 15,742 students were unspecified (OBHE, 2012). An extrapolation for all of the 200 IBCs worldwide would give a total of approximately 146,000 students (OBHE, 2012). Thus, while students at IBCs still represent a small percentage of total students, they are still a sizeable population in absolute terms.

What Motivates Universities to Establish IBCs?

For parent institutions, one reason for the establishment of an IBC is the desire to strengthen the revenue stream amidst increasingly more competitive and difficult market conditions (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Lane & Kinser, 2011; Altbach & Knight, 2007). Parent institutions recognize that one way of raising revenue is by targeting the growing population of students who desire top-notch degrees but do not want to leave (or cannot leave) their home countries to obtain them (Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012; Tang & Nollent, 2007).

For other parent institutions, the decision to establish an IBC is driven by the push for prestige (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Toyoshima, 2007). University leaders who cite such motivations argue that their institution's ability to successfully maintain a campus on foreign soil is evidence that they have a reputation for providing a high quality education; they believe that IBCs enhance their competitive advantage in the international higher education arena (Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012).

In contrast, some universities opt to expand through IBCs primarily for academic reasons. They may, for example, see IBCs as an opportunity to craft new curricula or improve existing teaching practices based on education systems abroad (Shams & Huisman, 2012). This is because newly opened IBCs are less resistant to change relative to parent institutions. Accordingly, they may allow faculty to test new ways of delivering their established educational programs, and in turn inject innovation and creativity into the way they teach their students (Tang & Nollent, 2007).

Other universities benefit from the ability of their students and teaching staff to easily move between campuses (Lane & Kinser, 2011). Leaders at such institutions note that having campuses in multiple locations worldwide vastly improves the learning experience for students by providing them with a relatively seamless opportunity to study abroad. This advantage, they note, is particularly useful in certain fields such as international relations where cross-cultural knowledge and experience are crucial.

What are the Benefits of IBCs for Parent Institutions, Host Countries, and Students?

According to their proponents, IBCs have benefits for several stakeholders. Benefits accrued to the parent institution include financial support from the host government, access to a part of the international student market that cannot afford to study abroad or does not wish to, the revenues associated with that new market, prestige, increased understanding on the parent institution's campuses of other cultures, new curricula, and access to local governments and industries in the host country. Faculty from the parent institution who teach at the IBC will gain experience teaching foreign students, experience that may translate later to better teaching of foreign students at the parent institution. And the opportunities for research may be expanded with closer ties between countries and the resulting greater access to research opportunities, new sources of data, experts, etc. (OBHE, 2012; Edwards & Edwards, 2001; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Marginson, 2006; Nguyen & LeBlanc, 2001; van Vught, 2008). IBCs also open up countless opportunities for international collaboration and the development of new teaching methods (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012; Toyoshima, 2007).

For host countries, IBCs often promote economic development by serving as an additional revenue source for local and national economies (Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012; Shams & Huisman, 2012). This is especially true for emerging economies where it is argued that "higher education will enhance the [host] country state's competitive advantage in the global marketplace by producing the new 'smart' workers who will take up key positions in the knowledge economy" (Tang & Nollent, 2007). Host countries also enjoy national prestige and increased influence abroad as they become a destination for world-class institutions (Macdonald, 2006; Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012). Moreover, by hosting IBCs, a country can minimize brain drain; i.e., retain highly skilled and competent young individuals who might have otherwise gone abroad to obtain a university education (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Macdonald, 2006; Lien, 2008; Lien & Wang, 2012). Host countries can likewise expect an increase in technology and knowledge transfer, collaborative research, and innovation, which, in turn, will help them

strengthen their own educational capacity and infrastructure (Becker, 2009; Garrett, 2004; OBHE, 2012).

Students benefit from the additional educational opportunities available to them at IBCs without having to leave their home countries. Studying at home also means that they don't have to subject themselves to the requirements that come with foreign visa applications (Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012). In addition, IBCs can offer financial savings for families because the tuition fees at IBCs are typically lower than fees at the parent institutions and students can live at home (Macdonald, 2006). Ultimately, through IBCs, students are given a wider choice in their education and are not limited by what their local education system offers (Tang & Nollent, 2007).

What are the Arguments against IBCs?

While IBCs arguably confer several benefits on stakeholders, they also pose some risks for stakeholders and face a number of criticisms. First, opening an IBC can be risky for the parent institution due to the large financial investment they require (Shams & Huisman, 2012). Because the success of an IBC is at least partly dependent on local conditions such as a stable host government, friendly relations among the host country, parent institution's country (the "parent country"), and parent institution, and a steady supply of willing students in the host country, the long-term success or failure of IBCs is difficult to predict (Cao, 2011).

Some question the quality of education offered by IBCs. Philip G. Altbach, for example, argues that IBCs are not full-fledged academic institutions, but targeted programs with relatively low start-up costs and high market demand in fields such as business management and information technology, a claim supported by reviewing actual course offerings at IBCs. On account of the frequently limited range of their academic programs and other factors such as the lack of commitment of their teaching faculty, he argues that IBCs provide an academic experience very unlike that available at the parent institution, despite what many may claim (Altbach, 2010).

A significant problem among IBCs relates to the contradiction between the parent institution's own programs and host country's social norms and laws which may restrict the higher education provider, resulting in a mismatch between the teaching material and

cultural or religious views (Schapper & Mayson, 2004; Smith, 2009). Thus, one of the main challenges for institutions operating abroad is to meet local standards and regulations while still offering programs that adequately reflect the learning experiences offered at the parent institution (Miliszewska, 2006). While some universities favor some level of local adaptation, others opt for complete standardization (Helms, 2008; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

Despite the attempt of various institutions to export their curriculum unchanged, differences in teaching methods and staffing at IBCs are largely unavoidable (Coleman, 2003). Factors such as the academic culture in the host country, staff qualifications, students' academic qualifications, student demographics, the accessibility of materials, linguistic factors, and infrastructure drive these differences. Scholars like Schapper and Mayson (2004) or Altbach (2007) heavily criticize the centralized-standardized model—an IBC model in which the parent institution establishes standards for curriculum, teaching methods, student performance, etc. and applies it to IBCs without regard for the local context or input from faculty and administrators at the IBC—which they say introduces limitations on the professional autonomy of transnational educators, threatening academic values and quality.

What Challenges do Parent Institutions Face in Managing IBCs?

The success of IBCs is strongly related to the strategic decisions made by leaders at parent institutions and the implementation of these decisions. Parent institution leaders and the staff they hire to manage the IBCs on site, however, face several strategic and managerial challenges that often make their roles difficult.

To demonstrate some of these difficulties, Shams and Huisman (2012) compare the establishment of an IBC to a business entering a foreign market. From an economic point of view, IBCs, like other transnational enterprises, must forge a competitive edge in their target markets using the factors they think are unique to them such as brand, intellectual resources, experience, and prestige (Dunning & Lundan, 2008a). They must also leverage their relative strengths and differentiate themselves in increasingly saturated markets.

One of the most difficult challenges faced by parent institution leaders and on-site managers of IBCs is the need to merge different cultures and academic standards. For

instance, a degree program may take only three years in the United Kingdom, but Chinese academic standards dictate that it should be four years (Hughes, 2011). These differences can affect the way curricula are developed and content fleshed out (Shams & Huisman, 2012). In addition, the legal and regulatory requirements of the two countries involved can aggravate the difficulties of operating an IBC (Lawton & Katsomiros, 2012).

Another crucial decision point for IBC leaders is where to source their funds. Lane and Kinser (2011) explain that "IBCs are intended to be self-supporting entities" that are "not subsidized by home institutions." Instead, their primary sources of funding are supposed to be from "tuition fees, host government subsidies, and private partner investment." Obtaining sufficient funding becomes especially difficult in areas where IBCs are just starting to make their mark.

Communication between the parent institution and IBC is another management issue (Hughes, 2011). The two parties need to agree on the format and frequency of reporting or updating, as well as which decisions need to be brought to the attention of the parent institution and which can be handled by staff at the IBC.

Managing a diverse workforce can be a major challenge for IBC administrators. Macdonald (2006) reveals that "barely a third are nationals from the host country," so it initially might be difficult to get several groups of educators to work together. Sometimes, on-site staff and faculty balk at following instructions from managers at the parent institution. In other cases, seconded employees (faculty or staff members from the parent institution who take a temporary position at an IBC) do not want to accommodate the local culture and lifestyle.

Several recruiting and staffing challenges also exist. The quality of personnel may well determine the success or failure of the IBC. It is imperative that IBC managers recruit qualified faculty and staff. This may be challenging, however, as managers face many difficult considerations when hiring IBC personnel.

First, parent institution leaders and on-site managers who are responsible for staffing decisions must determine how to source their staff most optimally. While faculty from the parent institution, for instance, is often ideal in terms of their competence and their knowledge of the parent institution's culture and academic standards, relying

predominantly on them often is not financially viable (Ennew & Yang, 2009). On the other hand, despite the potential availability of qualified faculty and staff in the host country (Ziguras, 2008), it is not recommended that institutions depend too heavily on faculty from the host countries as this can have a negative impact on the quality of teaching and connectivity with the parent institution (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009). Therefore, strategic decision-making requires a balance in the number of parent institution and host country staff (Tham & Kam, 2008; Li & Baalen 2007, Prowse & Goddard, 2010; Willis, 2004, 2005). Managers must establish this mix within the context of various legal regulations abroad, which might require that a certain percentage of faculty at IBCs be locals (Becker, 2009).

In hiring faculty, parent institution leaders and on-site managers also need to decide whether to recruit based strictly on the parent institution's standards or with consideration for local staffing standards (Hughes, 2011). They also have to ensure that new recruits are proficient in the language of instruction, which at most IBCs is English (Marginson, Kaur & Sawir, 2011).

IBC faculty who choose to leave IBCs often cite the differences between their expectations of employment at the IBC and the realities of it (Macdonald, 2006). Faculty and staff, for instance, may be disappointed by the relative lack of research and promotion opportunities at IBCs relative to their parent institutions or they may be overwhelmed by the paperwork and administrative tasks they did not have to complete at the parent institution. Leaders at parent institutions and on-site IBC managers need to understand what motivates faculty and staff to apply for positions at IBCs, and correct any misconceptions about what their functions will be. For instance, managers should explain upfront how teaching at an IBC may be different from teaching at a local university given potential differences in academic standards between the parent institution and host country, longer work hours, more demanding paperwork, and documentation requirements (Mazza, Quattrone & Riccaboni, 2008). Managers should then make it a point to hire individuals who understand these requirements and have the skills to operate in the IBC environment (Maringe & Foskett, 2010).

Summary of Chapter Two

The purpose of this chapter was twofold. First, it presented important contextual information for this dissertation. The chapter began with a detailed definition of IBCs, noting the differences in definitions used by various scholars and organizations. Next, the chapter provided information on the current number of IBCs worldwide, their rate of growth, and where they are located. This information is important for understanding the IBC landscape and its growing importance.

The second purpose of this chapter was to identify some of the factors already identified in the literature that universities consider when starting an IBC. To this end, the chapter explored the reasons why universities establish IBCs. A discussion of the benefits of IBCs for parent institutions, host countries, and students, and the arguments against IBCs, were also included. Finally, an exploration of managerial challenges, governance, and quality issues identified several factors potentially relevant to the decision-making process of leaders who are considering the establishment of an IBC. These factors included the presence of existing partnerships in countries and regions of interest as well as their political stability, existing levels of higher education enrollment, infrastructure development, culture, and language, the proximity of a potential IBC to other HEIs, and access to quality faculty and support staff. This dissertation will use these factors to build a conceptual framework and develop an interview protocol in Chapters Three and Four. It is important to note that the information in this chapter is meant to be informational rather than critical. This is in contrast to the next chapter, which focuses on the literature most relevant to the topic of this dissertation and which, accordingly, includes a more critical discussion of the strengths and limitations of this body of literature.

Chapter Three: Building a Conceptual Framework

Overview

While the academic literature exploring the motivations for establishing an IBC, as well as the benefits, disadvantages, criticisms of establishing an IBC exists, little information exists about the process or definitively what makes for a successful IBC development effort. HEIs beginning the development process for the first time don't find a lot of guidance in the literature.

However, some researchers have developed conceptual frameworks that describe the roles of IBCs in the higher education market, parent institutions' reasons for establishing IBCs, and the approaches parent institutions take as they plan and implement internationalization strategies and consider whether or not to enter the IBC market. This chapter describes some of these conceptual frameworks and their applicability and/or limitations for describing the process that HEIs go through when establishing IBCs. The chapter also proposes a new conceptual framework that borrows the best ideas from existing frameworks but includes modifications to make it more descriptive of, and useful for, IBC decision-making.

Conceptual Frameworks in the Literature

Scholars and researchers from the disciplines of education and business management have conducted research on IBCs and offered conceptual frameworks for understanding IBCs and the parent institutions' decision-making processes. In this section I describe:

- The Eclectic Paradigm, or OLI Framework, developed by John Dunning
- Two concepts under institutional theory: institutional distance as described by Tatiana Kostova and Srilata Zaheer, and institutional uncertainty as described by Nelson Phillips, Paul Tracey, and Neri Karra
- The Uppsala model, first described by Jan Johanson, Finn Wiedersheim-Paul, and Jan-Erik Vahlne and widely used in the business literature
- Daniel Levy's framework
- Jane Knight's Internationalization Cycle

I also describe findings from a review of the business literature on decision-making related to the internationalization process.

Dunning's Eclectic Paradigm (OLI Framework)

Dunning's Eclectic Paradigm (Dunning, 1980; Dunning & Lundan, 2008) rationalizes cross-border activities in terms of ownership advantages (O), location advantages (L), and internationalization advantages (I); this conceptual framework is also known as the OLI Framework.

The OLI framework has been used by scholars to understand the reasons parent institutions develop IBCs (Shams & Huisman, 2012) over other modes of market entry such as licensing and franchising agreements or joint ventures. Decision-makers must weigh the various advantages of each form of market entry against their associated costs, risks, and effort.

Ownership advantages affect both tangible and intangible assets that are specific to the educational institution or business organization and make transnational ventures possible. For IBCs, these may include curriculum expertise, human capital, and/or brand recognition. Those with prestigious brand names, faculty with the best teaching skills, and prominent research profiles often have the strongest ownership advantages. Elite institutions concerned with protecting their brand may be reluctant to license their curriculum to external providers as it means that they will have to give up at least some control over the governance and operations of their educational programs.

Location advantages—e.g., access to local resources such as public financial aid or local staff—refer to a parent institution's gains when locating abroad. Location advantages give institutions the ability to provide educational services inexpensively in high-demand markets and are often cited among an institution's key motives for establishing an IBC.

The final component of Dunning's Eclectic Paradigm is internationalization advantages, which refers to the advantages and disadvantages of internationalizing the provision of higher education through the establishment of an IBC over partnership arrangements such as licensing or joint ventures. The greater the net benefits of internalizing the production of cross-border higher education, the more likely an HEI will

prefer to provide the education abroad itself rather than license the right to do so. An educational institution that has made the decision to internationalize may choose to establish an IBC when an appropriate partner doesn't exist for a licensing or franchising agreement, or to avoid potential tensions that may arise out of such partnerships, or to keep all of its offerings under its control.

Table 1 illustrates Dunning's eclectic paradigm adapted to the IBC context. The table includes various forms of market entry (licensing/franchising, partnering, or establishing an IBC) and notes the categories of advantage related to each one. Franchising and licensing agreements offer the fewest advantages for institutions and firms. While they allow HEIs to exploit resources such as curriculum expertise, they do not allow institutions to take advantage of location advantages such as potentially lower-cost local labor markets or internationalization advantages such as exclusive ownership. Joint ventures allow institutions to take advantage of the location advantages but they lack internationalization advantages. IBCs, however, offer all three advantages described in the OLI Framework.

Despite these advantages, however, IBCs are not always preferable to other forms of market entry. IBCs are almost always the most costly among the three options so their benefits must justify their costs. HEIs consider their own characteristics and relative strengths and select the option that will maximize their net benefits.

Table 1. OLI Framework in the IBC Context

		Categories of Advantages		
		Ownership advantages	Location advantages	Internationalization advantages
Forms of market entry	Licensing/ franchising	Yes	No	No
	Joint venture	Yes	Yes	No
	IBC	Yes	Yes	Yes

Adapted from Shams and Huisman (2012)

Institutional Theory

Some scholars have looked to institutional theory—a framework that considers the processes by which structures, including schemes, rules, norms, and routines, become

established as authoritative guidelines for social behavior—to explain decision-making processes at organizations or, in our case, at parent institutions when they consider establishing IBCs (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012; Shams & Huisman, 2012). Institutional theory is rooted in the notion that organizations are influenced by "common understandings of what is appropriate and, fundamentally, meaningful behavior" (Zucker, 1983) and emphasizes the ability of institutions to influence organizations to conform to practices, policies, and structures that are consistent with institutional preferences (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Two of the most useful concepts in institutional theory are "institutional distance" and "institutional uncertainty."

Institutional distance suggests that cultural, regulatory, and other differences between two institutions or countries play an important role in the success of a proposed enterprise (Kostova & Zaheer, 1999). The concept of institutional distance highlights the importance not only of individual factors related to the host and home countries but of the interactions between the two countries as well. Many scholars (Xu & Shenkar, 2002; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012; Du, 2009; Phillips 2009) have used this concept to explain the location decisions of multi-national corporations. While some scholars merely apply institutional distance in a conceptual manner, others quantify it using the GLOBE (the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) Model or Hofstede Model (Estrin et al. 2009; Schwens et al., 2011). Using survey data supplemented by interview findings, focus group discussions, and formal content analyses of printed media, these models measure and quantify cultural practices and values for dimensions such as Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, Gender Egalitarianism, Assertiveness, Future Orientation, Performance Orientation, and Humane Orientation.

Wilkins and Huisman (2012) explore how universities might select different internationalization options based on institutional distance and institutional uncertainty (discussed below). If institutional distance between a home and host country is low, for example, institutions may be able simply to replicate their model in the host country. However, if institutional distance is high, adaptation may be necessary. Institutions considering IBCs must take into account a potential host country's norms and values and

what impact similarities and differences might have on the success of the endeavor or the suitability of various modes of market entry.

Institutional uncertainty refers to the country-specific political, financial, and economic risks associated with locating in a particular host country that might impact the ability of an IBC to operate, attract students, and maintain solvency. Political risks could include, for example, the imposition of unfavorable taxes or political unrest. Financial and economic risks include recessions, currency crises, or unexpected inflation.

The conceptual framework put forth by Wilkins and Huisman (2012) (see Table 2) shows four possible responses to various combinations of institutional distance and institutional uncertainty—adapt, avoid, transfer, and hedge—and the spectrum of appropriate responses by a parent institution. High institutional distance and high uncertainty disfavor the establishment of IBCs while low institutional distance and low uncertainty favor their establishment. Other combinations of high and low institutional distance and uncertainty may dictate entry into the market with a partner or more significantly with adaptation of teaching standards and the curriculum to the local context. This framework illustrates how institutional distance and institutional uncertainty play key roles in the market entry decisions of institutions considering an IBC and under what conditions parent institutions might adapt their structures and processes to the home country context or avoid establishing an IBC altogether.

While high institutional distance may require only that institutions adapt structures and processes to suit the institutional context in the host country, the framework suggests that in situations of high institutional uncertainty, institutions should avoid establishing an IBC under any conditions. This finding highlights the importance of stable laws, regulations, and academic requirements in the host country and will factor into the conceptual framework developed later in this chapter.

Table 2. Strategies for Addressing Institutional Distance and Uncertainty

		Institutional Uncertainty in Host Country	
		Low	**High**
Institutional Distance in Host Country	**High**	**Adapt** *Moderate risk, complexity, effort* Establish IBC but adapt structures and processes to suit institutional context in host country	**Avoid** *High risk, complexity, effort* Do not establish IBC in this host country as the risks are too high
	Low	**Transfer** *Low risk, complexity, effort* Establish IBC using the same structures and processes at the parent institution	**Hedge** *Moderate risk, complexity, effort* Establish IBC but as a joint venture with a local partner or obtain funding and assurances from host country

Adapted from Phillips et al. (2009, p. 341) and Wilkins and Huisman (2012, p. 8)

The Uppsala Model

The Uppsala model (Johanson and Vahlne, 1977), a widely used model in the business literature, hypothesizes that institutions take incremental steps towards entry into foreign markets or towards internationalization:

1. No regular export activities
2. Export via independent representative
3. The establishment of overseas sales subsidies
4. Overseas production, manufacturing unit

The notion of incremental internationalization put forth in the Uppsala model is very useful in this study of IBC decision-making. The model argues that experiential knowledge is a major factor in explaining firms' internationalization behaviors and that successful institutions are more likely to internationalize through traditional export modes before moving to more intensive and demanding internationalization activities. One can see a parallel in an HEI's progression from establishing study-abroad programs, to enrolling foreign students at its home campus, to establishing licensing or franchising

agreements (Mazzarol, Soutar & Seng, 2003), and finally to opening an IBC. Applying the logic of this model to the case of IBCs would suggest that given the importance of the experience and knowledge obtained from less-demanding international activities such as recruiting international students or developing international partnerships, parent institutions are unlikely to establish an IBC without significant previous experience developing academic partnerships with other institutions internationally.

Levy's Framework

The Levy framework (1986) argues that private HEIs typically serve one of three purposes: to provide something better, to provide something different, or to meet unmet demands, and scholars suggest that many parent institutions, and especially private HEIs, establish IBCs with the belief that the IBCs will fulfill similar purposes in the host countries.

Research by Lane (2011), specifically in Malaysia and Dubai, suggests that IBCs typically serve at least one of the three purposes described by Levy. The University of Nottingham's campus in Malaysia, for instance, arguably offers a new pedagogical approach and opportunities that are superior to what is otherwise available locally and serves student groups not served by local institutions. Ethnic quotas in Malaysia have historically prevented a large proportion of minority groups from obtaining public education (Lee 2001); IBCs help serve these student populations. In Dubai, IBCs offer students the opportunity to obtain an "American" or "British" education. Lane found that the governments in both Malaysia and Dubai welcomed IBCs to meet the capacity and other unmet needs that their public institutions could not accommodate.

Levy's framework suggests that ideal host countries lack diversity, number, or quality in their institutions. It would follow that institutions considering establishing an IBC would thus consider the level of unmet demand, quality of the existing institutions (usually indicated by their rankings), and pedagogical and curricular diversity of the existing institutions in the prospective host country. Prospective parent institutions would then have to decide whether they have the human capital and expertise to meet these gaps. Also following this logic, Levy's framework suggests that the institutions most likely to establish IBCs are those that are able to provide high quality education or that

specialize in certain academic programs or instructional styles (such as Western-style medical education).

Knight's Internationalization Cycle

While many of the frameworks discussed in this chapter focus on the *factors* that parent institutions consider when deciding whether or not to establish an IBC, few attempt to integrate that decision-making into a model of the actual *process* of planning and establishing an IBC. A framework proposed by Knight (1994) known as Knight's Internationalization Cycle (see Figure 1) views the internationalization process as a series of six inter-connected phases: awareness, commitment, planning, operationalization, review, and reinforcement. Knight suggests that, while there is a natural sequence to the phases, there will be overlap among the phases and backward steps even when the overall momentum is forward. While Knight's framework refers to broader internationalization processes, the steps are applicable to the narrower process of establishing an IBC.

First, in the awareness stage, institutions consider the need, purpose, and advantages and disadvantages of internationalization for students, staff, faculty, and society. Leaders generate discussion on campus about these issues and strategies for internationalization and the related resource implications. According to Knight, internationalization cannot be thought of as being owned by one group but should be inclusive.

The second phase in the framework, commitment, involves fostering dedication among senior administration, the institution's Board of Governors or Board of Regents, faculty, staff, and students to the process of integrating an international dimension into teaching and training, research, and service functions.

Next, planning begins with the articulation of the institution's needs, priorities, realistic goals, and objectives, a timeline for achieving the goals and objectives, and required and available resources. Planning must happen at several different levels and often will incorporate centrally planned elements as well as decentralized, or department-level elements.

The fourth phase in Knight's framework is operationalization, during which institutions implement different aspects of their strategies and create environments to support them. At the heart of this phase is the development of academic activities and

services based on the institutions' mission, resources, and goals. Organizational factors are also considered during this phase; institutions must decide how to manage and operate their international operations.

In the review phase, institutions assess and enhance the quality and impact of their international activities, including their IBCs. They ensure that their goals and objectives are being met in an efficient and effective manner, that certain activities and services meet goals and objectives, and that the quality of the services is in line with the institution's standards.

Finally, in the reinforcement phase, institutions reward and recognize faculty, staff, and students who participate in activities and provide services related to internationalization. According to Knight, incentives and rewards are important for building a sustained commitment to internationalization.

Many of the notions put forth in Knight's framework are applicable for this research. Her approach puts greater weight on the motivations and expected outcomes of internationalization activities than on the activities themselves, and is particularly useful in building a conceptual framework that captures the key factors universities consider in deciding whether or not to establish an IBC.

Knight's research (Knight, 1997) also helps categorize those key factors into four main groups: social/cultural, political, academic, and economic. Knight identifies the following as most important for universities considering an IBC: international profile and reputation (in the social/cultural group of factors); strategic alliance (in the political group); student and staff development and research and knowledge production (in the academic group); and income generation (in the economic group). These factors will be discussed in more depth when I build the conceptual framework.

Figure 1. Knight's Internationalization Cycle
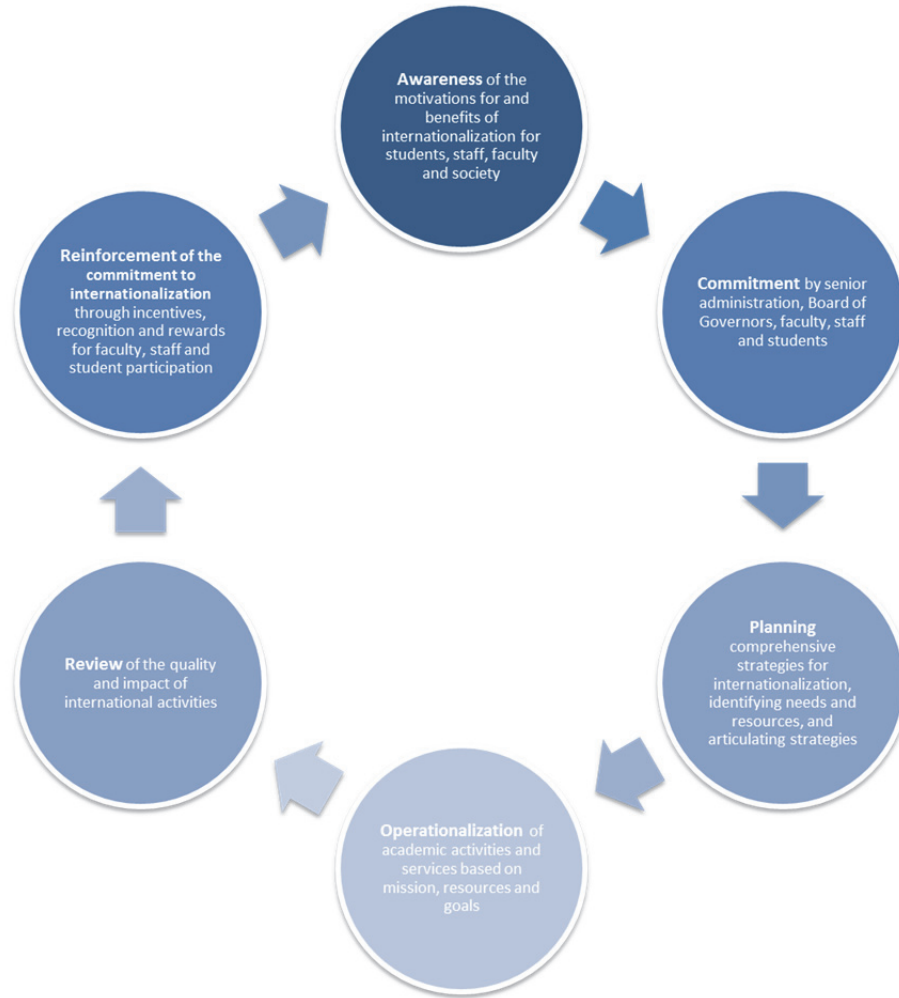
Adapted from Knight (1994)

Findings from the Business Literature

The decision-making frameworks described in the business literature depict the internationalization process as a series of multiple stages including country identification, preliminary screening, in-depth screening, and selection (Johansson, 1997; Cavusgil, 1985; Kumar, Stam and Joachimsthaler, 1994; Root, 1994). During the first stage, country identification, firms identify potential markets based on population, GNP, growth rate statistics, etc. They then move selected countries to the preliminary screening stage and examine each country based on factors such as political stability, geographic

distance, and economic development. Costs associated with entering each market are also assessed at this time and additional countries ruled out.

Next, firms complete an in-depth screening of the countries that are left. Industry and product market-specific data are collected and analyzed, market potential is estimated, growth rates are projected, competition is assessed and the company's resource constraints are revisited. Finally, after much scrutiny, final selection of a country/market is made based on the company's objectives and projected profits.

Although developed for the business environment, this framework nonetheless lends itself well to the analysis of host countries for potential IBCs. In selecting markets for IBCs, for example, it would be expected that institutions go through a multi-stage process similar to the one described for firms. Some of the factors considered at each stage, such as a country's political stability and level of economic development, are also likely to be applicable.

The Development of a Conceptual Framework

To create a conceptual framework to serve as a starting point for understanding the IBC decision-making process, and thereby fulfill one of the goals of this research – to understand and describe the roles of IBCs in the higher education market, HEIs' reasons for establishing IBCs, and the approaches parent institutions take as they plan and implement internationalization strategies and consider whether or not to enter the IBC market – I drew upon components in all of the conceptual frameworks discussed in this chapter and in Chapter Two. Although certain features of all the models are used to inform the conceptual model developed in this chapter, I rely most heavily on Knight's Internationalization Cycle as the iterative process it depicts is the most applicable to the IBC decision-making process. Unlike Knight's framework, however, the conceptual framework that I developed focuses on the planning phase of the internationalization process and fleshes out Knight's six stages by describing the steps that are involved in each stage. Additionally, rather than being a general framework of internationalization, the framework I developed for this study is adapted specifically to the IBC context.

The resulting conceptual framework, illustrated in Figure 2, views the decision-making process as a series of six stages: consideration, gathering support, country

identification, screening, final selection, and operationalization. This section will describe each of these stages.

Stage One: Consideration

The first proposed stage in the process of developing an IBC is consideration. During this stage, institutions consider the question "Why establish an IBC?" The HEI's leaders (potentially the president, vice president, chancellor, senior administrators, deans, department heads, Board of Governors, and Board of Regents), as well as faculty, staff, and students explore the potential positive and negative consequences associated with establishing an IBC. They articulate their institution's goals and discuss how IBCs might (or might not) be a means to achieving those goals. To this end, open, on-campus discussions may be held regarding the needs, purposes, strategies, controversial issues, resource implications, and benefits of IBCs. These discussions may be positive or negative with both supporters and dissenters. Understanding arguments both for and against IBCs is an important part of the discussion.

Finally, in conceptualizing this stage it is important to note that in accordance with the Uppsala model, discussions regarding IBCs are likely to occur at campuses that already have high levels of internationalization. Since institutions seldom go from little or no internationalization to establishing an IBC, it is likely that institutions discussing IBCs already have active student exchange programs, relationships with international academic departments, and potentially even twinning arrangements, franchising agreements, or joint ventures.

Stage Two: Gathering Support to Establish an IBC

The second proposed stage in the process of developing an IBC is gathering support from stakeholders at the university to open an IBC (as long as a suitable opportunity can be identified). Stakeholders may include the president and other academic leaders, administrators, faculty, staff, and the Board of Governors or Board of Regents. The support of stakeholders may be evident in the activities, budgetary allocations, and even written policies of the institution.

The literature (Knight, 1994; Ibid, 2004) suggests that the support of the president, other leaders, and administrators, both in expressed interest and written policy, is crucial to the successful establishment of an IBC. Support from the Board of Governors is also helpful in that it reinforces the legitimacy of the IBC and the university's commitment to increased internationalization.

The support of a critical mass of faculty and staff also is important for an IBC to succeed. Without their support, it is difficult to carry out the activities associated with an IBC and to recruit faculty to teach at the IBC.

Stage Three: Country Identification

In Stage Three, institutions select several potential host countries that seem to be compatible with the institutions' goals, resources, and strategic plans. The institutions then conduct preliminary analyses on these countries. They need to know, for example, whether there would be any significant barriers to entering a country to establish an IBC, what the competition would be, what the demand for higher education is, general facts about the population such as age and whether it is growing, as well as GDP and other economic indicators.

Levy's framework is useful at this stage in its suggestion that decision-makers identify markets where they can provide something better or something different, or where they can meet unmet demand. Consideration of institutional distance and institutional uncertainty, or the risks posed by operating in a particular host country, is also important.

Figure 2. Conceptual Framework for the Process of Establishing an IBC

1. Consideration

Exploration of the positive and negative consequences associated with establishing an IBC	Consideration of an institutions' goals and discussion of how IBCs might (or might not) be a means to achieving them

2. Gathering Support

Gathering support for establishing IBC from senior administration, the Board of Governors, faculty, staff and students	Activities, budgetary allocations, and written policies that reflect the institution's support

3. Country Identification

Analysis of higher education markets, competition, demographic factors, and economic indicators in potential host countries	Selection of a group of countries for further screening

4. Screening

Examination of the social/cultural, geo-political, economic and academic factors for the parent institution, host country and their interaction	Elimination of the countries from stage three that do not meet the institution's needs

5. Final Selection

Final examination of the information uncovered in stage four	Determination of which option best meets the institution's objectives and leverages its available resources

6. Operationalization

Selection, development and adaptation of academic programs at the IBC	Recruitment of faculty and administrators and establishment of support structures

Source: Author

Stage Four: Screening IBC Opportunities

The main purpose of the preliminary screening of markets is to bring about an efficient reduction in the number of countries in need of an in-depth examination (Johansson, 1997; Root, 1994). During the screening stage, institutions examine more closely the countries/market opportunities they identified in Stage Three and eliminate countries that do not meet their objectives (Kumar, Stam and Joachimsthaler, 1994).

Typically, screening is completed in two stages: preliminary screening and in-depth screening. Preliminary screening involves gathering general information about countries of interest and estimating the risk of establishing an IBC in those countries. Parent institutions look at basic factors such as the countries' political stability, geographic distance, and economic development, and the costs of entering the higher education market. The preliminary screening eliminates any countries that, after some initial vetting, do not appear to be easily accessed by the institution or otherwise suitable for an IBC.

In their in-depth screenings of the potential host countries that remain, institutions gather detailed data regarding the potential student market, student demand, willingness to pay, ability to pay, potential academic programs, and higher-education market growth rates. They revisit the strengths and weaknesses of the competition, entry barriers, and the institution's resources and constraints. The in-depth screening allows the institution to rank the remaining potential host country markets against a number of accepted decision criteria. Some institutions hire outside consulting firms to complete this task.

As illustrated in Figure 3, the factors that institutions consider in the screening stage can be organized into parent institution characteristics, host country characteristics, and factors arising from the interaction of the two entities. As Knight explains, such variables can be further grouped into the following categories: social/cultural, political, economic, and academic.

**Figure 3. Components of the IBC Screening Process in the Proposed
Conceptual Framework**
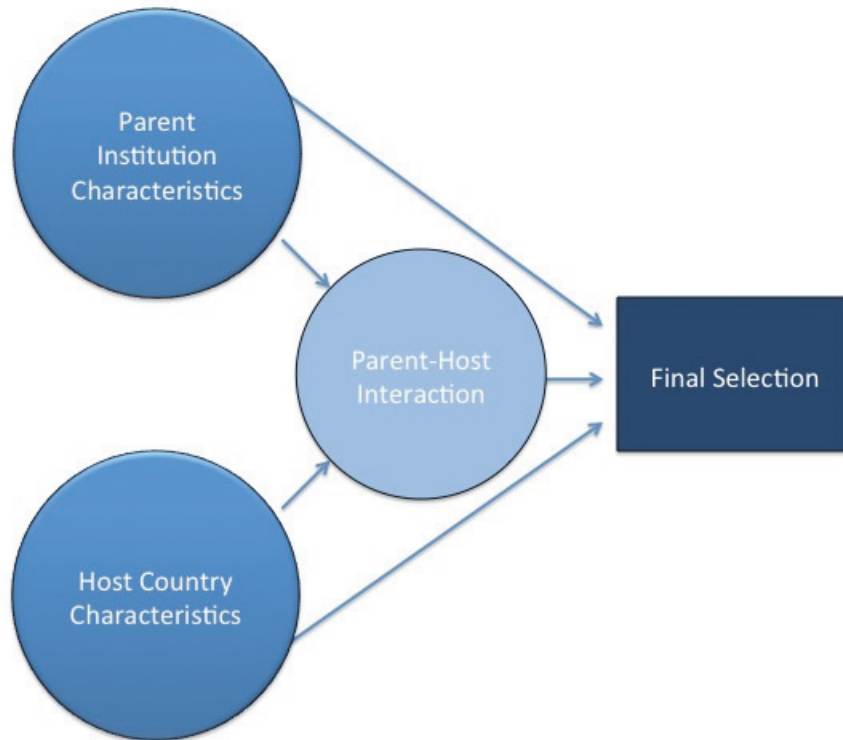
Source: Author

Parent Institution Characteristics

Parent institution characteristics include social or cultural factors such as the norms and values of the institution, its mission, and the level of commitment of its leaders to the establishment of an IBC. Political factors of interest may include the national identity of the parent institution and its country's foreign policies and relationships with other nations. Economic factors include an institution's need to generate additional income and grow. Finally, academic factors include the parent institution's desire to bring an international dimension to research and teaching, increase the institution's capacity for research and teaching, and enhance the institution's reputation and international presence. Institutions also consider academic factors such as the availability of teaching and other staff for a new IBC and what the curriculum should be.

<u>Host Country Characteristics</u>

Host country characteristics that institutions may consider when selecting a location for a potential IBC include social and cultural factors such as the norms and values of the host country, language(s) spoken, and business practices. Geo-political factors of interest include national security, foreign policy, regulatory frameworks, safety, and stability. Potential freedom from certain regulations or barriers is also part of this category. Economic factors include financial incentives that make setting up an IBC attractive to the parent institution, the local labor supply for filling staff and some teaching positions at the IBC, the country's level of economic development, and a potential IBC's tax exempt status. Finally, academic factors relevant to the potential host country include accreditation requirements, research opportunities, academic qualifications of students, and academic standards and norms.

<u>Parent-Host Interaction</u>

Another important category of consideration is the interaction between the parent institution and host country. Institutional distance (how similar the two countries are in their norms and values) and institutional uncertainty (the political, financial, and economic risks of locating in a particular host country) are extremely important.

A common language is useful. Academic factors such as the ability of students in the potential host country to meet the academic standards set by the parent institution as well as local interest in and demand for the academic programs offered by the host institution are also important. Geo-political factors such as political relations, geographic distance, and mutual understanding between the host and home countries are also key.

Economic distance, or the level of economic disparity between the home and host countries may also be important for three main reasons. First, countries with similar levels of economic development often have consumer market segments able to consume similar types of goods and services, in this case, higher education. Second, countries with low economic distance also have similar physical infrastructure, such as transportation and telecommunications systems. Third, since institutions often develop competencies or knowledge-based resources related to the markets they serve (Madhok, 1997), these resources are often best leveraged in countries with economic situations similar to their own.

Stage Five: Final Selection

Screening based on characteristics related to the parent institution, potential host country, and the interaction between them paves the way for the ultimate selection of a host country. Selection at this proposed stage requires a final look at the information uncovered during the screening stage, such as the likely financial solvency of the proposed IBC, the compatibility of the home institution and host country, and demand for educational services from potential students in the host country. These factors are then analyzed within the context of the institution's own goals and a determination is made regarding which option best meets the institution's goals and leverages its available resources.

Stage Six: Operationalization

The final stage, operationalization, involves everything required to get the IBC up and running. During this stage, parent institutions select and develop academic programs at the IBC. When doing so, they must consider their objectives in developing the IBC, the demands of the student population in the home country, and available resources, and then adapt as needed. They must set milestones for the IBC's establishment, such as when it will be opened, and they must plan student recruitment efforts. During this stage, leaders must also decide where faculty and staff will come from—the parent institution, the host country, or both—and hire as needed.

During this stage, HEIs also put support structures in place to ensure that the IBC continues to operate smoothly after the initial implementation. The parent institution, for example, may establish a new department or designate a position within an existing department at the parent institution to ensure ongoing communication between the parent institution and IBC and to support the IBCs academic programs and activities.

Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter outlined the existing approaches scholars have used to examine IBCs and discussed the strengths, limitations, and usefulness of these conceptual frameworks in the context of this dissertation. Using the frameworks previously used in the literature in discussions of IBCs as well as one borrowed from business management literature, the chapter then proposed a conceptual framework for this study. The framework synthesizes the ideas used in each of the existing frameworks in order to describe the process universities go through when establishing

IBCs. The process is described as six stages: Consideration, Gathering Support to Establish an IBC, Country Identification, Screening OBC Opportunities, Final Selection, and Operationalization. This framework will serve as the guiding theoretical framework for the dissertation. Evidence from the interviews will be used to confirm or refute the stages identified in this framework. An updated framework based on the findings of this study will be proposed in Chapter Six.

Chapter Four: Methodology

Overview

To understand the decision-making process that the leaders of HEIs go through when they consider the establishment of an IBC, I used the framework proposed in Chapter Three as a potential theoretical model for how parent institutions make decisions regarding IBCs. I then tested the framework using a qualitative approach. Specifically, I conducted interviews with several individuals who are stakeholders in IBCs—leaders at HEIs, professors who have taught at IBCs, and administrators responsible for the establishment and day-to-day operations of IBCs.

This chapter provides an overview of my approach to the research and the justification for the selected methods. It also describes relevant topics in some detail; for example, the population of interviewees and the approach to data collection and analysis. It concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the methodological approaches of this research.

Methodological Justification

The Qualitative Approach

Strauss and Corbin (1990) define qualitative research as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification." It examines things in their natural settings and attempts to understand or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people ascribe to them (Denzin, 2006). In contrast to quantitative researchers, who seek causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers strive for illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations.

The qualitative approach was appropriate for this research for several reasons. First, qualitative methods are good for gathering in-depth information about concepts or research questions about which little is known (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Since very little research on IBCs – and more specifically on the IBC decision-making process – exists, an exploratory, qualitative study would be most suitable. Good quantitative research would require a certain level of understanding of the variables of interest, but no study to date thoroughly identifies and describes the factors that institutions consider when establishing an IBC. Also, the limited

usefulness of the existing quantitative data on IBCs would make it difficult to conduct a meaningful quantitative study. For these reasons, I concluded that qualitative research would be more appropriate.

Secondly, the qualitative approach is capable of producing complex data on the topic of inquiry. For this research, I wanted to develop a rich, detailed understanding of the processes and variables that characterize decision-making at institutions that are considering IBCs rather than a mere list of the sequence of events or of the variables to consider. To do this, I needed to interact with the individuals who agreed to be interviewed for the study and understand the nuances in the process, obtain details on the variables themselves, and understand how they view the processes and variables as well as the meaning they attach to them.

Finally, it was important to me that I understand the decision-making process through the decision-maker's point of view and capture emerging themes and concepts in their own words. Qualitative methods helped me to do this. They also put me in a position to visit decision-makers in their own environments, which helped me better understand the contexts in which they are making decisions.

The Interview Approach

This study used face-to-face interviews and a semi-structured protocol as its primary data collection strategy. While I considered focus groups due to their ability to produce rich, complex data (Bernard and Ryan, 2013), I ultimately decided that interviews would be better for this study for three reasons. First, given the small number of people involved in decision-making processes at IBCs, interviewing them in focus groups would significantly reduce the number of independent observations. Likely, there would be only enough participants to conduct one focus group per institution. Since interviewing several individuals at each institution provided an internal checking system that would be important to increasing the reliability of the data, I found individual interviews preferable to focus groups. Secondly, focus groups are subject to groupthink: the likelihood that participants would censor and conform their thoughts and opinions based on those of others in the group. While this can be desirable in some research, since I sought to gather information on a wide variety of individual experiences, interviews were more suitable for my research. Finally, in this particular study, some of the participants might not have felt comfortable sharing their thoughts on certain experiences and issues in a group setting.

They may not have been willing to speak frankly if their bosses or colleagues were in the room. Given the sensitive nature of many IBC projects and the differing views people have of them, isolating interviewees would make them most comfortable and be most conducive to candid conversation.

After deciding upon the interview approach over other alternatives, I also made several important choices regarding the interview format. I chose a semi-structured protocol over an unstructured or structured protocol in order to produce data that are richer and more complex and ensure that certain questions and topics were consistently covered while still leaving myself with some discretion regarding the exact selection of questions and use of probes. The semi-structured protocol also allowed me to ask clarifying follow-up questions, which I thought would be particularly valuable given the exploratory nature of the research.

Given that participants in this study were busy, high-level HEI leaders and administrators, I decided that face-to-face interviews would be the best way to obtain the detailed responses I wanted while using the interviewees' time as efficiently as possible for several reasons.

First, face-to-face interviews gave me the opportunity to spend more time with the interviewees since research participants are typically willing to spend more time on face-to-face interviews relative to telephone interviews or self-administered questionnaires (Bernard and Ryan, 2010). Having more time with the interviewees allowed me to ask the more detailed questions and gave me time for follow-up.

This method also gave me the opportunity to directly interact with the study participants in their own environments and observe social cues such as voice, intonation, body language etc., all of which gave me important additional information that phone interviews or surveys couldn't provide. Face-to-face interviews also allowed for more candid responses since people couldn't skip ahead to anticipate questions or change answers they had already given. Finally, the interview format ensured that I received responses from the people I intended to interview rather than from their staff members or colleagues.

Research Design

Study Instrument

I conducted an extensive literature review to identify the most salient issues confronting those responsible for decision-making related to IBCs. Since the literature on planning IBCs is limited, I also examined management literature focusing on strategic decision-making at transnational and multinational corporations.

This preliminary literature review resulted in the identification of several factors potentially relevant to the decision-making process of leaders considering the establishment of an IBC. These factors included the presence of existing partnerships in countries and regions of interest, political stability, existing levels of higher education enrollment, infrastructure development, proximity to other HEIs, culture, language, and access to quality faculty and support staff. Guided by these factors, I developed the semi-structured interview protocol. A final version of the protocol is included in Appendix A.

Sampling Strategy

To select the institutions and individuals for the interviews, I chose maximum variation sampling over other alternatives. Maximum variation sampling, also known as heterogeneous sampling, is a form of purposive sampling designed to maximize the range of perspectives on the topic of interest by selecting institutions that differ as much as possible on specific characteristics. Maximum variation sampling is well-suited for obtaining information on a diverse set of institutions and identifying shared patterns that cut across cases (Hoepfl, 1997).

Given the relative small number of IBCs, the high level of diversity among them, and the extent to which these variables arguably impact their decision-making processes, this sampling method would put me in the best position to explore the decision-making process from a wide variety of perspectives and angles and identify the most common (and potentially most generalizable) themes within the sample. Also, having significant variation in the sample would also me understand how factors and processes vary by specific institutional characteristics such as mission, rank, or size.

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Sample Identification

Parent institutions vary on several dimensions including, but not limited to, institution type (public, private, for-profit); academic rank; and mission. The IBCs they operate also differ considerably in terms of their age (well-established, established, new, closed, planned); target student populations (home country, host countries, or international markets); student body size; level of instruction (undergraduate, graduate, or both); location; degrees offered (Arts, Humanities, Sciences, Engineering, etc.); tuition fees charged; source of funding or support (parent institution funded, host government funded, or a combination of both); and source of accreditation.

Using data from the OBHE, I selected institutions for this study based on six primary factors:

- Type of parent institution (public, private, for-profit)
- Age of the IBC (new; planned; well-established; closed)
- Parent institution academic rank (Top 100, 101-500, 501+/unranked)
- Student body size at IBC
- Level of instruction at IBC
- Host country or region

Each factor, along with the rationale for its inclusion, is described below. Notably, while I tried to be as comprehensive as possible in identifying dimensions on which both parent institutions and IBCs may vary, it was impossible to identify and sample on all potential dimensions of interest. Such shortcomings have the potential to produce bias and will be addressed in the limitations section at the end of this chapter.

To select specific institutions for the study, I categorized all of the institutions in the world identified as IBCs by OBHE in a matrix based on the aforementioned factors (detailed below), and I purposefully selected among those on the list to maximize heterogeneity. I chose institutions such that at least one but ideally two or more institutions would fall under each sub-category (i.e., for age of institution: new, planned, well-established, and closed). To maximize the amount and quality of information collected within the limits of my travel funds, I also considered geographic location of the parent institution. If I had identified an institution in one city or region for inclusion, I also reached out to all other institutions with IBCs in that area so that I could visit multiple institutions in one trip. I selected this method over stratified sampling or quota sampling based on the characteristics of interest. While stratified sampling or quota

sampling would have mitigated sample selection bias, it would mean fewer institutions overall would be included or that I would have to conduct all interviews by phone because of the greatly increased travel cost of such in-person visits. I thought the benefits of the inclusion of additional institutions and in-person interviews outweighed the drawbacks associated with additional bias this form of sampling would introduce to the study. Nonetheless, the sampling strategy does have the potential to bias the study and will be discussed in the limitations section.

Type of Institution

HEIs can be either public or private. A public institution is predominantly funded by public means through a national or subnational government, as opposed to private institutions which are not funded by governments (although they may receive tax breaks, public student loans, and grants). Additionally, some private institutions are non-profit while others are for-profit.

I chose to consider the institutional type when selecting my sample because it has a significant impact on several factors affecting IBC decisions. For example, public and private institutions may differ with regard to how they can use funding. Legal requirements that restrict how public funds are used may place limitations on how public institutions can spend money overseas (Altbach, 2011). Public and private institutions may also differ with regards to their governance structure and level of autonomy (Fielden, 2008). Such factors may, in turn, impact their options and decision-making process.

Age of the IBC

Age refers to how long the parent institution's IBC has been in operation. For the purposes of this study, I divided IBCs into five groups: planned, new, established, well-established and closed. "Well-established" IBCs are defined as those that opened prior to 1990; "established" IBCs are those that opened between 1990 and 2000; and "new" IBCs are those that opened after 2001. Planned IBCs are those that were expected to open in 2013 or later.

I choose to sample based on these variables in order to gather information on the planning and operation of IBCs at different points in their establishment. I assumed that new and well-established IBCs, for example, might face different challenges and wanted to understand what difficulties institutions encountered at various stages in the establishment process and how these challenges or enablers changed over time. Also, by talking with leaders at parent institutions with IBCs of varying ages, I was able to speak both with individuals directly involved in the planning

process as well as individuals whose primary roles were focused on the on-going operation of established IBCs. This helped me identify what and how administrators were thinking at various stages of IBC development.

Finally, the inclusion of institutions of varying ages was also necessary given that I was interested in the process institutions go through when establishing an IBC but was only able to obtain data from a single point in time (as opposed to a longitudinal study in which I repeatedly visited the same institutions over a longer period of time). By sampling institutions at different time points in the establishment of their IBCs, I could better address time in the study and understand issues such as the difference between what planned institutions expected and what newly established institutions actually encountered. This also helped me identify some factors HEIs should have considered prior to committing to an IBC, but didn't because they didn't anticipate the factor at all or didn't fully understand how much of an impact it would have on the IBC.

Parent Institution Rank

The rank of the parent institution refers to its place in international higher education rankings. Ranking systems such as the QS World University Rankings, Times Higher Education World University Rankings, and Academic Rankings of World Universities (ARWU) rank universities based on a formula that takes into account factors such as the number of staff and alumni who win Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals, the number of citations received by the research conducted by faculty/researchers, the number and quality of publications in which faculty research is published, and the opinions of peers at other institutions. In this study, I used the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU), a global ranking system also known as the Shanghai Ranking.

I chose to include this variable because an institution's rank and the reputation it garners often have a strong impact on a university's options for establishing an IBC and on the subsequent decision-making process. For instance, officials at higher education hubs such as Education City in Doha, Qatar, the Dubai Knowledge Village in Dubai, and the Songdo Global University in South Korea often only invite highly ranked universities (i.e., among the Top 100 universities worldwide) to establish an IBC in the hub. As a result, higher ranked institutions often have more opportunities to pursue fully or partially funded endeavors relative to

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institutions that are ranked lower or unranked on the international rankings systems. This, in turn, impacts their options and the decision-making process.

During the decision-making process parent institutions also think about how the establishment of an IBC may impact their reputations. There is still a lot of controversy in higher education regarding the quality of IBCs and the motives of the institutions that establish them, which may make higher ranked institutions less willing to establish IBCs. At the same time, institutions may also view the establishment of an IBC as a way to enhance their reputations and gain worldwide recognition. These considerations reinforced the importance of including institutional rank as one of the sampling parameters.

Student Body Size

Student body size refers to the number of students at the IBC. In this study, IBCs with fewer than 200 students were labeled small, those with 200-500 students medium, and those with over 500 students large. These cut-offs were based on the median student body size at IBCs, which the OBHE reports as 235 (OBHE, 2012).

The number of students at an institution can also have an impact on the decision-making process. It is a much more complicated and arguably more difficult endeavor to develop a large, undergraduate program, for instance, rather than a small graduate program. For this reason, the factors that decision-makers consider when evaluating the feasibility of an IBC and the institution's ability to recruit the number of students needed to maintain certain course offerings and achieve financial solvency may vary based on the intended size of the IBC. Large IBCs require recruiting many more students and are arguably riskier compared to small IBCs with single-subject programs.

Level of Instruction

The level of instruction refers to the academic level of the courses offered. IBCs can offer undergraduate degrees only, graduate degrees only, or both. Undergraduate degrees require a large faculty in several different subject areas and many student support services and activities. Graduate programs, on the other hand, may focus on a narrower range of subjects and offer fewer student activities. On account of these differences, the process of establishing undergraduate institutions versus graduate institutions is likely different in many ways and for this reason I chose to include the level of instruction as a variable of interest.

IBCs exist in nearly every region of the world: Asia, Europe, the Middle East, Africa, Central and South America, and Australia and Oceania. The location of the IBC has an impact on its development and operation. The Middle East, for example, has a strong history of providing funding and support for institutions willing to open up IBCs in the region while IBCs in Europe often do not receive the same level of financial and non-financial support. Accreditation requirements also may vary by region. IBCs in one country, for example, may be required to obtain local accreditation while in others they may be exempt. Institutional distance between states in different regions may also play a role in deciding whether or not to establish a campus abroad. An institution considering opening an IBC in China faces important questions regarding cultural differences and freedom of speech, for instance, that they might not have to consider if they were to establish an IBC in another country.

Institutions also vary based on the parent institution. At the time of the writing of this dissertation, twenty-nine parent countries operated over 200 IBCs across the world, with the United States, the UK, France and Australia having the most representation. While the counry of the parent institution would have been a very useful variable of interest, this dissertation was limited to HEIs in the United States and Europe due to financial considerations.

Recruitment of Interviewees

Fifty-four potential interviewees responsible for decision-making at 33 IBCs were identified using information on the universities' websites and higher education news sources such as *The Higher Education Chronicle* and *Times Higher Education*. These individuals were contacted via personalized email messages. If no response was received after the first email, I sent up to two follow-up emails. Consent or refusal to participate in the study was noted, along with the reason (in the case of refusal). Table 3 summarizes the frequency of responses for the sampled population.

Out of the fifty-four individuals contacted for an interview, seventy percent (70 percent) agreed to take part in the study, for a total of 38 participants who "accepted." Despite follow-up email messages, five individuals did not reply. "Unavailable" in the table means that the potential interviewees were willing to participate but were not available within the time frame of the study. "Resigned" means that the individual identified for the interview had since resigned

from their position and was not locatable. "Cancelled" means that the individuals scheduled interview appointments with me but then cancelled and we were never able to reschedule. Only one potential interviewee declined outright because she didn't think she knew enough about the IBC at her institution.

I did not purposefully decide upon a total number of participants prior to beginning the interviews. Instead, I conducted interviews in rounds until saturation was achieved. After three rounds of recruitment and interviewing, I stopped recruiting interviewees since it seemed that the interviews were producing very similar responses and little new information regarding my key research questions.

Table 3. Sample population response summary

Response	Percent
Accepted	70%
No reply	9%
Unavailable	9%
Resigned	6%
Cancelled	4%
Declined	2%
Total	100%

The Interview Process

In total, I interviewed 38 individuals at 11 parent institutions. At each institution I interviewed between one 1 and 7 individuals, with an average of 3 individuals at each institution. Of 38 interviews, 35 (92 percent) were conducted face-to-face, two (5 percent) by telephone, and one (3 percent) by videoconference. The interviews lasted from 28 to 85 minutes, with the average interview lasting 51 minutes. All participants gave their consent to be recorded during the interviews.

The Interviewees

The individuals that I interviewed in this study held various high-ranking positions at their respective institutions. Five were the chancellor, president, principal, or provost; eight held titles such as associate provost or pro-vice chancellor; five were deans or assistant deans; 16 served as

the directors of various internationally-focused departments or even the IBCs themselves and the remaining were professors. These individuals represented 26 IBCs.

Notably, while none of the interviewees (or their institutions) are named in order to ensure their anonymity and therefore candor, all represent internationally recognized institutions that the reader would most likely be aware of. Seventy-seven percent (77 percent) of the institutions are among the top 500 universities worldwide.

Tables 4 and 5 summarizes the characteristics of the IBCs and parent institutions represented in this study. They vary greatly based on the key observable characteristics described earlier in the section, "Sampling Strategy."

Table 4. Characteristics of IBCs

Dimension		Number	Percent
Age of IBC[1]			
	New	8	31%
	Planned	7	27%
	Well-established	6	23%
	Established	4	15%
	Closed	1	4%
Study Body Size[23]			
	Medium	9	47%
	Small	5	26%
	Large	4	21%
	Unknown	1	5%
Level of Instruction[4]			
	Both	10	53%
	Undergraduate	5	26%
	Graduate	4	21%
IBC Region			
	Asia	13	50%
	Europe	5	19%
	Middle East	5	19%

[1] "Well-established" IBCs are defined as those that opened prior to 1990; "established" IBCs are those that opened between 1990 and 2000; and "new" IBCs are those that opened after 2001. Planned IBCs are those planning to open in 2013 or later.
[2] "Small" IBCs are defined as those with fewer than 200 students; "medium" as those with 201-500 students; and "large" as those with over 500 students.
[3] Data excludes the 7 planned institutions
[4] Data excludes the 7 planned institutions

	Africa	1	4%
	Central and South America	1	4%
	Oceania	1	4%

Table 5. Characteristics of Represented Parent Institutions

Dimension		Number	Percent
Type of Institution			
	Private	4	36%
	Public	7	64%
Rank[5]			
	Top 100	3	27%
	Top 101-500	4	36%
	500+/Unranked	4	36%
Parent Institution Region			
	North America	7	64%
	Europe	4	36%

Data Analysis

The purpose of the analysis was to explore the decision-making process at institutions with proposed or existing IBCs, acquire insight into the process, and ultimately construct a conceptual framework for the decision-making process. Guided by these objectives, I used Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step coding process for thematic analysis. These steps are: familiarization with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes among codes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the final report.

Familiarization with the data was accomplished through transcribing and reading through the transcripts multiple times. Given the exploratory nature of the study, an iterative process was used to analyze some of the initial data. The purpose of this was twofold.

First, by analyzing some of the data during the collection process, I hoped to enhance its overall quality. To this end, interview data were transcribed as soon after the interviews as possible. During the transcription process, I analyzed the data to make sure I asked the intended questions and used probes appropriately. Based on the initial interviews, I also identified various shortcomings in my interview approach and developed strategies to improve the overall quality of the data collected. Some of these changes included re-prioritizing questions and improving probes.

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[5] As defined by the 2012 Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) aka the "Shanghai Rankings."

The second purpose of iterative data collection and analysis was to determine whether the topic of the study should be expanded, contracted, or refined. To this end, I studied the transcribed data to make sure the questions and probes were capturing the concepts I sought to understand and that they were eliciting a proper level of detail. I used this preliminary analysis to better guide and direct future interviews.

Initial thematic codes were then identified using the following thematic and linguistic cues outlined by Ryan and Bernard (2003):

1. *Repetition:* The number of times a concept occurs in the text.
2. *Indigenous categories/typologies:* Identification of terms that are unfamiliar to the researcher or used in a different way.
3. *Metaphors and analogies:* The use of metaphors or analogies in a way that can reveal themes and insights within the data set.
4. *Transitions:* Naturally occurring changes in the topic of conversation made by the participant.
5. *Constant comparison/similarities and differences:* The systematic comparison of different sections of the text and the identification of similarities and differences among them.
6. *Linguistic connectors:* The use of connectors such as "if,: "since," or "because" that may reveal the participant's system of logic.
7. *Silence/missing data:* The identification of topics about which the participant refused to speak or spoke very little.

As themes were identified, they were named and put in a codebook with the following information: name of theme, short description, long description, inclusion criteria, exclusion criteria, and example. Throughout the course of analysis, the initial set of codes was reviewed and refined. New codes were generated and old codes deleted or combined, as appropriate. The process resulted in the identification of eight "parent" codes: Motivation, Gathering Support, Identification, Screening, Selection, Academic Programs, Faculty/Staffing, and Quality Control. These codes as well as their definitions and examples can be found in the codebook in Appendix B.

After finalizing the eight parent codes, I then coded the interview data under one or more parent codes. While most of the data fit under one parent code, some interviewees discussed

more than one topic or switched between two topics, which is why some of the text was coded into more than one category. Once all the text pertaining to a particular parent code was marked, I analyzed all the data associated with each parent code individually to identify sub-themes within each parent code. For example, I read all of the data coded under the "motivations" at one time. I read and re-read the data several times, creating potential sub-codes in the process. These codes were refined until I finally identified a manageable set of sub-codes that captured all the sub-themes the data supported under each parent code. For the motivations parent code, for example, the sub-themes that emerged were: enhancing the parent institution's reputation, creating research and academic opportunities, gaining access to student markets, altruism, and financial gain. Once the sub-themes were finalized, I then re-read and coded the text for these sub-themes. Quotes that best exemplified the ideas expressed under each sub-theme were also tagged for use in the results section.

Quality Issues

Internal Validity

Protocol Development

In order to improve the internal validity of the semi-structured instrument used in this study, the draft protocol was distributed to two RAND researchers as well as an outside topical expert for their review prior to its finalization and use. Based on feedback from these three parties, the questions as well as their sequence were modified.

Triangulation

Methodology triangulation was used in this study by analyzing print documents such as parent institution planning documents, publicly available IBC feasibility studies, and news articles, and comparing them to the results of the interviews. The purpose of this was to compare observations drawn from different sources and ultimately improve the validity of the study. Areas of convergence bolstered the credibility of the resulting findings while areas of divergence added richness to the results and identified areas for further investigation.

<u>Use of Quotations</u>

As Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2011) note, the use of verbatim quotations in the narrative is extremely important to increase the transparency of the analytical process and the validity of the research findings. For this reason, I tried to include at least one exemplar quote for every theme I discussed in my analysis. Using the words of the interviewees in my study rather than my own to illustrate key concepts when possible made my findings less subject to any bias that may have resulted from my own paraphrasing and interpretation of the participants' words.

Reliability

To improve the validity and reliability of the coding strategy in this study, a second coder, Beth Katz, a fellow doctoral student with expertise in qualitative research, audited a total of 223 excerpts from the interviews. She first reviewed an initial sample of 166 excerpts and matched them with their appropriate codes from the codebook. The initial sample of 166 excerpts had an overall agreement rate of 81 percent. Examination of inter-rater agreement by code, however, revealed lower than average coder agreement for the "Identification," "Screening Selection," and "Support" codes. These codes were discussed and refined to improve their quality and definition in the codebook.

A second round of auditing was then completed to check the accuracy of the refined codes. The second sample included 57 additional excerpts, with oversampling of the aforementioned codes with low coder agreement in the first check. The second audit had an overall agreement rate of 88%. No significant disagreement, moreover, was observed for any one code in the second audit.

Ethical Issues

The ethical treatment of the participants in this study was considered a top priority during all phases of the research, as described below.

Interview Methods

Interviews were conducted face-to-face when possible and every effort was made to ensure that the participants felt comfortable and unthreatened by the questions asked in the interviews. Before the interview, respondents were assured that their participation was voluntary. They were

also told that they were free to withdraw their informed consent, stop the recording, or go off the record at any time during or after the interview. Each participant was also informed that information he or she gave would be stored securely and reported in a way that would make it impossible to attribute reported information to a unique individual or institution.

Human Subjects Considerations

The RAND Human Subjects Protection Committee approved this study in May 2012. Information regarding the study and participants' rights was provided to the participants in writing at the time of the interview. Appendix C is a copy of the informed consent document provided to the interviewees.

Data Protection

Individually identifiable information such as the subject's name, position, and university was removed from the transcripts and replaced with codes. The data were stored in compliance with RAND's policies and procedures on acquiring and safeguarding proprietary and private information.

Limitations

Several limitations of the study related to the sample, the trustworthiness of the interviewees' responses, and the generalizability of the findings exist and must be addressed.

Limitations of the Sample

As I began the study, I found very little prior research on IBCs, and this presented some problems for this study. First, the data were very limited on the characteristics of IBCs such as funding sources, academic programs, student admissions, and faculty and student characteristics. This made it impossible to identify and sample on certain dimensions of interest. For example, it may have been useful to include in my sample at least one IBC that is highly selective in its student admissions and at least one that is less selective, but because student admissions data were not available, I was unable to classify institutions into groups by selectivity. Incomplete or missing data also made it impossible to validate self-reported findings from the interviews. If an

interviewee said that the IBC was just as selective as the parent institution, for example, I could not compare admissions statistics at the IBC and the parent institution for verification.

Additionally, several choices had to be made to accommodate the time and financial limitations of the study. First, I chose to sample only administrators and faculty at parent institutions and IBCs—a choice that allowed me to focus on those who are directly responsible for making decisions regarding the IBCs and to reach a large enough sample to achieve saturation within this population. I did not interview other stakeholders such as students or representatives of the host country governments and partners. I had the time and funding to sample a small population of these stakeholders, and including them may have led to a more complete and balanced analysis. However, I decided that it was better to not include these stakeholders unless I could sample enough of them to achieve saturation and draw larger conclusions. It was my goal to understand not just the challenges and circumstances of one particular group or institution but the themes common to many institutions—and the interviews with administrators and faculty allowed me to do that.

The fact that the data were drawn from a single point in time rather than longitudinally also presents some challenges. I essentially took several snapshots of the process of establishing and running an IBC, and these snapshots may not capture the process as accurately as would a series of snapshots taken at one or more institutions over a period of weeks or months or years. Also, one institution may do things in a different order than another or altogether differently. The institutions in the sample that were currently establishing IBCs, rather than managing IBCs already established, may have approached the process differently based on lessons learned from other institutions, for example.

Trustworthiness of the Interviewees' Responses

All data are self-reported and cannot be independently verified. Some of the data may be inaccurate because interviewees were required to answer questions about processes or events that occurred in the past. They may remember incorrectly or recall events that occurred at one time as if they occurred at another time. Also, the person being interviewed may not have had the best knowledge of the processes under discussion. Some of the interviewees, for instance, did not work at the parent institutions (or had jobs at the parent institutions unrelated to the IBCs) at the

time the IBCs were first proposed and may have speculated or given rough estimates in their responses.

Interviewees may also have withheld or misrepresented information or details relevant to the study findings. The decision-making process surrounding the establishment of an IBC often brings up detailed proprietary information that university leaders and administrators might not be willing or able to share. Likewise, interviewees may have exaggerated or embellished certain events or outcomes. Such omissions or inaccuracies could bias the findings of the study.

Interviewees may also tend to misrepresent or protect information regarding challenges or failures—more so than successes—as the former are often more sensitive, with the result that challenges and failures may be underreported. Confidentiality requirements also limited the amount of information that interviewees could share on some topics of interest, such as financial agreements and solvency, resulting in asymmetries in the amount of data collected by topic.

In order to minimize the impact of respondent bias, I tried to foster an environment in which the participants felt they could be truthful and candid. For example, I made significant efforts to ensure anonymity and confidentiality and reassured interviewees that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time with no ramifications. I also interviewed several people in different positions at the institutions included in the study and compared what they said to answers provided by interviewees at the same institution as well as to information provided in the institutions' printed documents, which did reveal some areas of disagreement and tension.

Generalizability of the Findings

External validity, or the degree to which findings are relevant to other populations and contexts (i.e., generalizability), is often limited in qualitative studies given the purposefully selected, non-representative samples they use. The exclusion of participants from HEIs that vary on key observables such as their location or status as a for-profit or non-profit university may make the results less applicable to other institutions. Despite its limitations, this study contains several findings that may be of use to policymakers, practitioners, and researchers in working on the development of IBCs or other forms of transnational higher education and provides a starting point for future research that would not exist without this dissertation.

Summary of Chapter Four

This chapter described the methodology that I employed in this study. The purpose of the chapter was to provide the reader with a detailed understanding of how I approached and conducted the analysis as well as justification for the methods I selected. As described in this chapter, this dissertation uses a qualitative approach. Interviews were conducted with decision-makers at HEIs in the United States and Europe in order to better understand how leaders at these institutions decide whether or not to establish an IBC. A qualitative approach was chosen due to its ability to produce rich data on a topic that is relatively unexplored.

The chapter also detailed the interview process, with separate discussions on the study instrument, sampling strategy, sample identification, and procedures for recruiting interviewees. In total, 38 decision-makers representing 26 IBCs and 11 parent institutions participated in this study. The 38 participants were selected purposively in order to maximize heterogeneity based on the following factors: age of the IBC (new, planned, well-established, closed); student body size at IBC; level of instruction at IBC; IBC region; type of parent institution (public, private, for-profit); parent institution academic rank (Top 100, 101-500, 501+/unranked); and parent institution region.

The resulting interview data were transcribed and thematically analyzed. The thematic analysis revealed eight primary themes: motivation, gathering support, identification, screening, selection, academic programs, faculty and staffing, and quality control. Data under these parent codes were then sub-coded into sub-themes, which are described individually in the results section in the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Findings from the Interviews

Overview

A very rich narrative regarding the process that parent institutions go through when deciding whether or not to establish an IBC emerged from the interviews. These interviews provided critical information for addressing the study's two research questions:

1. How do universities make decisions regarding whether or not to establish an IBC?
2. What factors support or hinder the establishment of an IBC?

Most of the interviewees talked about their institutions' experiences in terms of: goals for establishing an IBC; the support necessary to establish an IBC; the process of identifying and screening opportunities; selecting and developing academic programs; and faculty and staffing. These topics fit loosely into the conceptual framework I proposed in Chapter Three and this chapter is organized accordingly with main sections that capture both the structure of the conceptual framework and the focus of the interviews as follows:

The conceptual framework	Organization of findings from interviews
Consideration	Consideration, goals, and motivations
Gathering support	Gathering support
Country identification	Opportunity identification
Screening	Screening, decision-making and planning
Final selection	Operationalization (includes finalizing
Operationalization	academic programs and selecting faculty and staff)

The discussions regarding the individual themes address the second research question—*What factors support or hinder the establishment of an IBC?* To address the first research question—*How do universities make decisions regarding whether or not to establish an IBC?* —I compare my conceptual framework to the reality of the process as described by interviewees.

Consideration, Goals, and Motivations

As the conceptual framework proposed (see Figure 2 in Chapter Three), one of the first steps in developing an IBC is a period of consideration and reflection. During this stage, institutional leaders consider the institution's goals and how an IBC might (or might not) be a way to achieve

them. They think about the pros and cons of establishing an IBC, its alternatives, and whether or not the establishment of an IBC would be supported by faculty, students, and other stakeholders. They ask questions such as "What are our goals?" "What are the benefits of establishing an IBC?" "What are the risks of establishing an IBC?" and "What alternatives exist?"

Evidence from the interviews suggests that institutions establish IBCs to distinguish themselves within an increasingly competitive global higher education marketplace. The exact reasons interviewees put forth for pursuing IBCs ranged from financial gain to enhanced prestige, to increased access to student markets, and even to altruism, but underlying all of the motives was the desire to improve the competitive position of the parent institution.

The interviews also reveal differences in how institutions with diverse characteristics address the aforementioned questions. A parent institution focused on teaching will have different considerations than an institution focused on research. Likewise, an elite university with a strong reputation will have different concerns regarding the protection of its reputation than a less prestigious university. Such considerations are also made within a larger context of the university's overall academic programs and partnerships abroad. While certain opportunities might present great academic opportunities for faculty and students, for instance, if a university already has some similar opportunities in that country, it might look for other options that better diversify its offerings.

Enhancing the Parent Institution's Reputation

The most cited reason among interviewees for establishing an IBC was the desire to enhance their institutions' reputations and forward their institutions' positions as global leaders in education. In fact at least one of the interviewees from all of the institutions included in this study mentioned reputation as one of the key, if not the top, considerations. *How* or *why* leaders at different higher education institutions thought IBCs would enhance their reputations, however, varied based on factors such as the university's mission, rank, revenue sources, and research productivity.

Underpinning this goal was the belief that, in an increasingly globalized society, the role of the university must necessarily grow into one that is more internationally engaged and focused in order to maintain educational quality and relevance. Discussing his university's choice to establish an IBC, one interviewee said, "I think there was a deeper sense that universities in the

21st Century need to be engaged globally." This interviewee and others saw opportunities for research and study abroad as critical components of preparing students to be "global citizens" and to succeed in an increasingly globalized society. Accordingly, they viewed increased internationalization as necessary to maintaining or advancing their institution's reputation for quality research and education. IBCs were one way for them to achieve these goals and improve their competitive position. By establishing IBCs before many of their competitors, many leaders hoped to brand their institutions as leaders in international education. They also hoped to benefit from "first-mover advantages" in regions that they thought would become increasingly important over the next century.

The interviewees also expressed the desire to use IBCs to increase the "global influence" of their institutions. As one interviewee explained, her institution's primary goal was "to raise [the parent institution's] profile in a region where [it] had quite a long tradition of recruiting…students." Continuing, she added that her university also wanted to increase its "global influence" by producing "a lot of graduates that will influence the way things are done across the world in the future." As this evidence suggests, global presence and influence were central objectives for many institutions. Leaders at these institutions saw IBCs as a way to increase their international profile through both physical presence and alumni networks.

While interviewees overwhelmingly cited reputation as one of the primary motivating factors, there were differences in how they thought IBCs would improve their institution's reputation. Interviewees from highly reputable universities (i.e., top 200 institutions) argued that international presence was critical to maintaining elite status and competing with other elite universities for faculty and students. They thought that having an IBC would help them strengthen global research opportunities and increase their ability to attract and retain top faculty and students.

Illustrating this point, an interviewee at an elite institution with an IBC in Asia explained that one of the reasons his university established an IBC was "to establish our presence and reputation and…attract top level students." Leaders at the institution saw the emerging Asian region as one of the best places to do that. "We see more research going on there, we see more excellent students emerging [and] so we want to be part of that potential." Speaking about the research-related benefits, an interviewee at an elite United Kingdom-based institution noted, "The IBC is a reputation-enhancing thing for us…our research needs to be recognized

internationally for it to rank highly." By having an IBC abroad, her institution hoped to provide its staff with more research opportunities abroad and increase the international profile of its research. Leaders at universities hoped that having an IBC in one of the most up-and-coming places in the world would make the institution a much more attractive choice to top faculty and students who valued the opportunity to work and study there.

In contrast, more moderately ranked universities focused on international presence as a way of expanding the scope of their influence and potentially advancing their position by engaging in activities more often pursued by higher-ranked institutions. Illustrating this, one leader said "I believe that this campus [the IBC] will elevate our institutional prestige…Most of the U.S. universities that are pursuing arrangements like this, or some variation of this, are more elite U.S. universities. So it was, in part, an opportunity to play a role reaching a little bit beyond our grasp." As this evidence suggests, some moderately ranked institutions might see the establishment of IBCs as a way to improve their status by doing something typically associated with higher-ranked institutions.

While the decision to open an IBC is often driven by the desire to increase one's reputation, it can also have the opposite effect if not done well. As one interviewee cautioned, "we do face the risk of the embarrassment of something not being successful, so we have to be very invested in making this not just a financially successful operation but an academically successful operation because while I'm seeing this as an opportunity to boost our institutional prestige, the flipside is that it doesn't work academically and you wind up being the owner of a second rate university." As this evidence suggests, concerns regarding the degradation of an institution's reputation also play a central role in the process of considering whether or not to open an IBC. This concern was stronger at elite institutions, which had more to lose relative to lower-ranked universities.

While an IBC can be risky, it also has advantages relative to alternatives such as franchising or twinning arrangements, which give universities less control relative to IBCs. Discussing her university's decision to establish an IBC rather than another international partnership as had historically been the approach by this university, one interviewee said the advantage was "that the values, what makes [the parent institution] distinctive, the way in which we teach, our learning and teaching strategy, our research, all of that can be embedded somewhere else." Speaking specifically about why to work with a partner, she noted "if you work with a partner

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it's a combined offering. So the partner may have slightly different approaches…" In this sense, she argued that "the branch campus gives us an opportunity to really extend our reach and really build the brand globally by having a real presence with our own staff and our own approaches and values [which] I think are different. I think the depth of that is different."

She also cautioned against the risks to reputation posed by other forms of internationalization, stating that "we haven't gone for franchising, which a lot of universities have done, because we don't want to give our degrees to other universities to deliver and I think we've become firmer about holding that line really because it is a huge world but also quite a small world in terms of reputation and perception and all those things and we believe that we'd rather do a few things but keep the quality high than serve the masses and not be sure what's happening and not have a good grip over [our programs]." Clearly, some universities see IBCs as a way to pursue internationalization with a lower level of risk compared to other forms of internationalization in which the university has less control and input.

Creating Research and Academic Opportunities

Another top-cited reason for establishing an IBC was the creation of additional academic and research opportunities for students and faculty. While this topic was touched upon in the previous section on enhancing reputation, it is important to note that the creation of such opportunities was viewed by many institutions not only as a way of improving its reputation, but as a goal in and of itself. Many interviewees viewed the international experience an IBC can offer as an important part of the student academic experience. As one interviewee explained, establishing an IBC is "about reaching students [in the host country] who you would not otherwise reach, it's about creating new opportunities for staff and students from the [parent institution], it's about new research opportunities [for faculty and students at both campuses]…"

Most commonly, universities argued that having an IBC helped them enhance their ability to facilitate international academic experiences for students. As one interviewee noted, "wherever our students come from, we owe them the chance to immerse themselves in the world's cultures and learn how to work with people from widely diverse origins. All of the deepest challenges we face—in economic development, in environment, in security, in health—arise across borders and must be solved across borders." Continuing, she argued, "we must be international to be part of that solution." As this statement highlights, universities view the opportunity for research and

study abroad as a key part of a 21ˢᵗ Century university experience and see an IBC as one way to provide students with these opportunities. Many institutions allow (and some even require) students at the IBC to complete a portion of their studies at the parent institution. Likewise, students at the parent institution typically can spend a semester or year at the IBC.

Several of the universities also saw an IBC as a means to develop international research linkages. One interviewee with an IBC in Asia noted that his institution was very excited about "the industry developing [in the host country]." He noted that the IBC will be right next to one of the research stations for several top technology companies, which he believes poses some interesting research opportunities for the faculty and students at the IBC.

Another institution saw significant advantages to having a campus in an area of increasing global importance and the focus of a lot of research. As one interviewee at this university explained, "we wanted to give our faculty access [to more research opportunities abroad]." Continuing, he noted that the parent institution has a strong emphasis "on putting our knowledge into services with a number of institutes that are built around critical and global challenges." Its IBC, he explains, is located "at the heart of a number of those [challenges]" and offers academic programs in several related academic areas.

The importance of strong research opportunities also linked back to a university's ability to maintain and strengthen its reputation. As one interviewee noted, it is the institution's internationally renowned research reputation that attracts students and distinguishes it from other institutions. Another interviewee noted, "what differentiates us from the university across the road…[is the] fact that we've got a hundred times the research business that they've got…and that gives the students a different experience that enables them, we think, to get better jobs. That's the result they're paying for."

Accordingly, it is very important to develop opportunities for research abroad. As one interviewee noted, "If you want to sustain…success for all the overseas operations" you have to "build up research capacity and reputation." He explains that when selecting a university "a potential student will look at …the reputation of the university," a key component of which is its research reputation. Therefore, "if you don't build up your research reputation then you can't sustain…student intake." Continuing, he also warns that "if you don't have research activities you can't attract high quality academic staff to go [to the IBC]." The ability to establish research partnerships and opportunities for faculty is thus a key consideration for research-focused

institutions. Among more teaching-oriented universities, however, the presence of research opportunities was less important.

Gaining Access to Student Markets

Several of the leaders interviewed in this study pursued IBCs to gain access to new student markets or to increase or protect their market share in regions where the parent institution already has a strong presence. They wanted to recruit students who were interested in the type of education they offered but who were unwilling or unable to go to the parent country. The evidence from the interviews supports Levy's framework, which argues that institutions establish IBCs in countries where they can provide a different or better alternative to local education or meet excess demand for it. The evidence revealed that such reasons, moreover, were not mutually exclusive. Some institutions pursued IBCs for more than one or all of these reasons.

Several universities pursued IBCs in countries where they could offer a type of education or degree program not currently offered by other local universities. As one interviewee from an IBC in a region with a large U.S. expatriate population described, they opened an IBC because "there were expats, children, spouses and people [in the host country] who wanted a U.S. degree" but no other university offered one. This created "a niche and someone contacted [our institution] through a connection" about the development of an IBC. This interviewee explained that "they started small and it really did work. People from the [host country] sent their children or their spouses." As this evidence illustrates, IBCs are sometimes a response to meet unmet demand for a certain type of education that is not otherwise available in the host country.

Other administrators noted that having an IBC may also enable those students who might not otherwise have opportunities to live internationally to have an international experience. Highlighting this point, she said "we think it's important that students have opportunities for international study or study in an international context. We're increasingly offering opportunities for…students who perhaps have constraints on where they can study, but [who] may wish to pursue a U.K. kind of degree." To meet this need, she explained that "we've taken some of our top programs and we offer them…through our branch campuses internationally, which gives students wider opportunities to access a U.K. degree."

Institutions also established IBCs in regions where they could offer something better than the local alternatives. This was particularly the case for institutions invited by the host country to

establish IBCs in educational hubs. Many of these host countries are just developing their higher education systems and do not yet have universities with the world renowned reputations of many U.S. or European universities. As a result, their governments sought out high quality institutions to establish IBCs in their countries in order to give students opportunities to pursue high-quality education closer to home. These institutions serve students who are interested in a high-quality education from a prestigious university, but are unable or unwilling to leave the country due to factors such as religious constraints or personal relationships.

Finally, some institutions established IBCs in locations where demand for education exceeded supply. In several countries, for instance, demand for certain degree programs is often greater than the capacity of existing programs. Admission is determined based on national exam scores and students who don't meet certain score thresholds are denied admission to those degree programs in the public system. As a result, some students opt for private education, which IBCs can provide. As the cost of private education at an IBC is higher than local public institutions, parent institutions do need to consider whether or not the tuition charged at IBCs will be financially competitive in the host country market, a consideration which will be discussed in more detail in the section on "Screening, Decision-Making and Planning" in this chapter.

Institutions also seek to protect or expand their existing market share in geographical areas abroad where they already have a strong presence. In such cases, IBCs were reactive attempts to maintain access to certain markets with high demand for their services. As one interviewee explained, "the reason for focusing on [the host country] was that we had quite a significant presence in [the host country] in terms of student recruitment from [the host country] to the [the parent country]. We were, and still are, the biggest recruiter of students from [the host country] to [the home country]. We originally saw building a campus as a way of protecting that flow of students…" Another participant noted a similar rationale. Leaders at his institution decided to open a campus abroad after hosting a successful study abroad program in the country for several years. After noticing that several students from the host country were transferring to the parent institution, they decided to take a risk and develop a full-fledged IBC.

Altruism

A secondary motivation evident in a few cases was altruism. Two interviewees from different institutions cited altruistic motivations for establishing schools abroad. Both of these institutions

were non-elite institutions with religious roots that considered bringing education to underserved areas a priority. As one interviewee noted, the university was founded by nuns with the stated mission "to meet unmet needs for education." Another interviewee stated that establishing "a high quality, Catholic-oriented undergraduate [school] in [the host country]" was one of the institution's primary goals.

Notably, however, an interviewee at one of these universities recognized that this mission and the practical need to make money can come into conflict. He stated that "…there was a lot of hand wringing about [the IBC]…It's been harder for us to make it sustainable and people on the Board, who are principally business people, want every piece of our operation to be successful and supporting itself. The rest of us have argued that as long as it's not a serious financial train wreck, honestly, it's such a contribution to our mission for us to have an outpost in [the host country] that it would really undermine our mission as a global university if we gave that up just because it was falling short by a couple of hundred thousand dollars or million dollars every year." This statement was unique, as most institutions, whether motivated primarily by money or not, thought that IBCs should at least generate enough revenue to cover expenses.

Financial Gain

Critics of IBCs argue that institutions pursuing IBCs are motivated primarily by money. The truth of this statement, however, is difficult to evaluate since many other motivations, such as improving one's reputation, also have indirect financial benefits. It is also complicated by the fact that the financial deals parent institutions make when they establish IBCs are often not public, since many IBCs are private institutions that, unlike public universities, can keep financial details private. While the information that is available suggests that large sums are at play, the exact amount of money to be made by establishing an IBC is unknown and varies widely, which makes the issue difficult to examine directly.

Only one interviewee, from an institution that was offered a very large fee to establish an IBC in a wealthy Middle Eastern country, stated financial motives as primary in the decision to establish an IBC. She said "it was another revenue stream, a management fee." While she said that her university found the opportunity interesting and worthwhile, she also made it clear that "we wouldn't have gone there if it weren't for the money."

While many interviewees rejected the idea that their institutions pursued IBCs for direct financial gain, their stated motives arguably were tied to increased revenues and economic gains. Improving reputation, increasing access to student markets, and expanding research and learning opportunities for faculty and students also have significant, though indirect, financial benefits.

While universities may state that enhancing their reputation is their primary motive for expanding abroad, financial gain may nonetheless be an underlying motive. To the extent that universities with better reputations are able to attract more students willing and able to pay their tuition fees, receive greater endowments and gifts, and win more research funds, status competition is not unrelated to economic motives.

The desire to access untapped student markets also arguably has an underlying financial motivation. While responding to student demand is not directly about the money, attracting additional students means raising more revenue. As one university explained, "it wasn't a money-making initiative in the sense that we thought we were going to make loads of money from it….Clearly we wanted to break even, but it was always much more about positioning, becoming known there and capturing a market..." Continuing, he explained that "a certain layer in the market [in the host country] could afford to come and pay higher fees, but did not want to come to the U.K., and that's quite an interesting slice of the market really."

Finally, the location choices of institutions suggest that financial gain is a motivating factor. Parent institutions establish IBCs in areas of high demand with students or governments capable of supporting their costs. Many universities establish programs in hubs such as Education City in Qatar, Knowledge Village in the United Arab Emirates, and Songdo Global University in South Korea, for instance, because of the favorable government policies and generous financial support they offer. Few universities were willing to open IBCs in places where their costs could not be met.

Summary

Table 6 summarizes the findings from the interviews related to parent institutions' goals for establishing IBCs and the advantages and potential risks of doing so.

Table 6. Summary of Findings from the Interviews: Stage 1, Considering Goals and Motivations

Goals	Advantages of IBC for Reaching Goals	Potential Risks
Enhancing parent institution's reputation	• Enhances global influence and recognition • Increases ability to recruit top quality students and faculty • Allows institution greater control over its brand and reputation relative to other forms of internationalization	• Failure of IBC and damage to the institution's reputation • Greater financial cost relative to alternatives such as franchising or twinning arrangements
Creating research and academic opportunities	• Develops international research linkages with faculty and research centers • Enhances the parent institution's ability to facilitate international academic experiences for students	• No great risks, but research opportunities are less important for teaching-oriented institutions
Gaining access to student markets	• Protects or expands regional market share in areas that already have a high demand for the parent institution's services • Serves excess demand • Offers something better or different than local alternatives	• High tuition fees that make it difficult for IBCs to compete with local alternatives
Altruism	• Promotes religious ideals • Serves underserved markets	• Conflict between altruistic missions and the practical need for financial sustainability
Financial gain	• Earns additional revenue through tuition and management fees • Accesses new student markets that provide new sources of revenue • Indirectly benefits finances by improving reputation, which enhances institution's ability to recruit tuition-paying students	• Failure of IBC with potential cost to institution of millions of dollars due to sunk costs related to building infrastructure, legal fees, program development, etc.

Gathering Support

The evidence gleaned from the interviews supports the idea put forth in the conceptual framework developed in Chapter Three that argues that the second stage in the process of developing an IBC is measuring and developing support on the part of stakeholders at the parent institution, such as the president, the Board of Governors or Board of Regents, faculty, staff, and students.

Interviewees at all institutions argued that IBCs cannot be developed without support from institutional leaders. Establishing an IBC is not an easy endeavor and is in many instances resisted and questioned by at least some stakeholders, so having strong leadership is crucial. Paraphrasing, one interviewee said that the reason her university had an IBC was very closely tied to the president's leadership strength and vision for the university. Seconding the importance of these qualities, another interviewee explained, "…you really do need kind of strong leadership with a vision to do these kinds of things. You see that the successful ones we hear about in the U.K. have that level of confident leadership. It's the same with the U.S. NYU, for example, has quite bold, strong leadership."

Interviewees also noted that leaders have to have courage since IBCs are risky and require a certain level of risk tolerance. One interviewee recalled, "I have an enormous amount of respect for our former dean. He went at this thing with more courage than you can expect…He was very entrepreneurial and I think just weighed the potential. I don't mean to suggest that he was careless about it, because he wasn't, not at all, but he just weighed the potential risks and benefits," made a decision, and had the courage to pursue it.

University leaders also have to have the strength and determination to establish the IBC even when some may be against it. As one interviewee described, "I can tell you from having been in the vice chancellor's office and then in the international office, most of the university was against the development of…our IBCs… Now that they are successful, however…a lot of people claim credit for that success. Most of the people who were here when those campuses were developed were against the IBCs, but we had a vice chancellor that had the strength to push them through and get his way."

The evidence also showed that leaders must demonstrate their support for the IBC in both word and action. They did this in four main ways: engaging and fostering buy-in among faculty, staff and students; allocating funding and staffing to support the IBC; bolstering ties with

potential host countries; and rearticulating the university's mission to give context to the establishment of the IBC. Each of these actions are discussed below.

Engaging and Fostering Stakeholder Buy-In

While there are instances of university leaders developing successful IBCs despite a great deal of faculty and staff members disagreeing with the decision, having the support of faculty, staff and students is very beneficial, particularly if the institution wants some of them to conduct research, teach, or study at the IBC. As one interviewee noted, "It's not just one person…that can say, 'we want to do this, it will happen.' That's not enough. I think more importantly, it is your organization." He noted that stakeholders at all levels at an institution need "to be prepared to engage" and warned that "if you don't have that, it's empty." When asked if there were any factors that particularly enabled efforts to establish an IBC, one leader noted "Very, very quick buy-in from staff that this was an exciting project…was one important thing." He said that everyone at his institution knows about the IBC and "even if they'll never have anything to do with it, they want it to succeed."

In some cases, however, support from certain stakeholder groups is not optional. Some of the interviewees reported that their institutions had to obtain approval from various stakeholder groups in order to establish an IBC. As one interviewee explained, the decision to establish an IBC had to be passed by "the Board of Governors, the Rector, Vice-Rector and the two Directors of the Administration and then by representatives of the tenured academic staff, representative of the academic staff, representative of the non-academic personnel, representative of the students, external parties and the unions, for instance. So lots of those people are involved." In such cases, obtaining the support of faculty, staff, and other stakeholders is thus critical.

Several leaders devoted resources to engage these various stakeholder groups and foster buy-in among them. As one interviewee noted, leaders at his institution worked really hard "to really probe, quantify, encourage, and channel the more grass roots ambitions of other departments of the university to have a presence overseas..." To meet this goal, he explained that they "met with all the deans fairly frequently…formed several advisory committees of faculty…focused on [different countries] and…spent a lot of time listening to people's ideas and tried to capture those in a comprehensive university plan."

Another interviewee noted that her institution offered training sessions to help faculty and staff better understand various issues. As she explained, the development of the IBC involved people from several different departments, not just those focused on international activities. On account of this "there were a lot of questions." To address the questions, her university "piloted a cultural consideration training session, which was hugely popular." People, she explained, "are very, very interested in understanding different cultures. And so from our secretaries to event managers to the principal and the senior staff, [there was] lots of interest in just getting a better handle on how we could operate effectively in the context [of the host country]." This evidence illustrates how wide-reaching the process of establishing an IBC really is and how leaders can and do take steps to engage and obtain buy-in from a wide range of stakeholders.

Finally, having a team that leadership could trust was critical. High-level leaders such as presidents and chancellors cited support from administrative leaders such as deans, heads of specialized departments focused on global strategy or internationalization, provosts, and vice-chancellors as fundamental to their success. As one leader noted, "the second thing I'd say [that was important to our success] was the team leading the IBC are just superb…I'm a lucky principal to have that…I have absolute trust in them and that's a lucky position to be in."

Allocating Funding and Staffing to Support the IBC

Leaders also showed support for IBCs by allocating human and financial resources to support them. They hired specialists with knowledge relevant to the establishment of the IBC, created administrative departments to support the IBC, and allocated funding for the construction of buildings and filling other needs of the IBC.

All of the institutions included in this study had personnel at the parent institution who focused predominantly, if not exclusively, on running the IBC or IBCs. Many interviewees noted the creation of new administrative positions to facilitate international expansion. One, for instance, served as the advisor to the university president on international affairs. As he recalls, his role was "to work directly with the president of the university and the provost to help get [the parent institution] to explore and establish overseas relationships." An interviewee at another institution noted that his institution hired specialists to help evaluate invitations the institution received from other countries to establish a higher education presence and "look at some of the

opportunities." Another interviewee stated that his institution established an entire international committee with subcommittees focusing on specific countries.

It's important that the parent institution be willing to provide money to build or buy facilities and other necessities if it is not all provided by the host country. Funding for related endeavors is also important. One interviewee noted that "[leadership at the university] established an institute for the study of [the host country], essentially a think-tank funded from university resources with no external funding."

Bolstering Ties with Potential Host Countries

Parent institution leaders demonstrated their support for the idea of developing an IBC by working to build ties with potential host countries through direct interaction or delegates. One interviewee noted that an important part of his role was to help establish the university's image in the host country and develop relations "with the municipal government in [the host country]." He said that he often met with "high ranking officials all the way up to the Ministers of Education, Trade, and Industry and other relevant parts of [the host country's] government." Notably, he also mentioned that he was never by himself but accompanied by other leaders from the parent institution. He also spent a large amount of time working with the person he called his "counterpart on their end, the vice mayor."

One interviewee brought up the importance of key leaders personally spending time at the IBC. She noted that this was very important to demonstrating support and giving validity to the idea that the parent institution and its IBC are one university. An interviewee from another institution noted that "in my last few months at [the parent institution], I traveled... [to the host country] with the provost and the president of the university…where we had a formal signing ceremony to assert [the relationship] and sign contractual agreements with [the host country]…" Such gestures highlight the importance leaders place on spending time at the IBC, particularly for important milestones in its establishment.

Another way parent institutions improved relationships with the host country was by hiring nationals from the host country for key positions at the IBC. As one interviewee explained, "…the vice chancellor believed that to work in [the host country] successfully we needed greater intelligence and he did two things. One was to recommend that we appoint [a native of the host country] as our chancellor, which we did. That gave us this kind of foothold in [the host country]

in terms of intelligence. [The Chancellor's] background was that he was an academician… [and] the former president…of [one of the host country's] strongest universities." Such hires were not unusual. In fact, many of the interviewees hired individuals with strong ties and experience relevant to the host country during the process of establishing an IBC.

Rearticulating the Parent Institution's Mission

Key leaders often play a role in articulating the mission statement and helping stakeholders at the university better understand how the IBC fits into its larger goals as an institution. As one interviewee explained, "The coherence of strategy is very important" and requires "reviewing the university strategy and thinking about...the future." He notes that university leaders must think of "international strategy as an institutional strategy" and consider their institution's international endeavors in "all the strategic thinking and direction for the university."

This leader observed that "one of the really big changes" that he has seen at his institution since the decision to establish the IBC is the extent to which "internalization [has become] a core strategic thrust of the university." He says that "so rather than previously where it was sort of around the edges of what we did, [internationalization] has become central to what we do. If you ask anyone at [the parent institution] 'What are the core strategies of the university?' they will mention internationalization as one. Five years ago I don't think they would've said that." This evidence shows that leaders play a key role in rearticulating the university's mission and demonstrating the values of the IBC to stakeholders at the university.

Summary

Table 7 summarizes the findings from the interviews related to the parent institution's strategies for gathering support for the IBC.

Table 7. Summary of Findings from the Interviews: Stage 2, Gathering Support

Related Factors	Strategies for Gathering Support
Engaging and fostering stakeholder buy-in	• Engage multiple departments and address concerns • Host activities such as cultural awareness training to engage stakeholders and foster their support • Be prepared to handle resistance to the IBC or questions about it • Consider pursuit of IBC despite criticism from stakeholders
Allocating funding and staffing to support the IBC	• Hire specialists to evaluate opportunities and operate the IBC • Form institutional committees and subcommittees on international affairs • Dedicate leadership and/or staff positions to supporting the IBC • Allocate money to build or purchase facilities and otherwise support the IBC
Bolstering ties with potential host countries	• Dedicate staff to developing relationships in the host country • Ensure that key leaders personally spend time at the IBC • Hire nationals from the host country for key positions at the IBC
Rearticulating the parent institution's mission	• Re-articulate the university's mission to demonstrate how the IBC coherently fits into the parent institution's goals

Opportunity Identification

The findings from the interviews show that the next stage in establishing an IBC is to identify potential opportunities. Such opportunities include invitations from the host country, invitations from private institutions, and invitations to compete for space in new educational hubs. In this way, evidence from the interviews supports a slightly different process than what was proposed in the first conceptual framework, which outlines country identification as the next step in the process. Instead, this study found that parent institutions do not identify a country or group of countries to evaluate but instead evaluate specific opportunities that arise. Thus, while

institutions may more generally articulate a focus on certain countries or regions as part of their mission and take this into account when analyzing an opportunity, the actual process is more reactive than proactive and more circular than strictly linear. An opportunity may present itself and as the parent institution considers it, leaders may backtrack to cover some of the planning that the conceptual model proposed would be completed in earlier steps.

The reason for this difference is that IBCs are very costly to establish in terms of both time and the effort required to navigate various legal and academic requirements in the host country. As a result, universities rarely establish IBCs alone, but instead rely on academic and government partners to provide financial support and guidance.

In this section I discuss how institutions identify opportunities to establish IBCs and, since opportunities are often linked with partnerships, the importance that institutions place on selecting a quality partner.

Identifying Opportunities

In some cases, opportunities to establish IBCs arose from existing relationships and experiences abroad. Discussing the origin of her university's IBC, one interviewee explained that they "started doing partnerships with…other higher educational institutions around the world." She noted that these relationships "got [our university] noticed in international markets" and it was this recognition that prompted an invitation to establish an IBC. She noted that while her university's international activities, which focus heavily on East Asia, may seem like part of a coherent strategy, they really arose, in large part, by "being at the right place at the right time.' As she explained, "it looks like [our university had] an East Asia strategy but the opportunity just came up." She explained that they had no idea initially what they were ultimately signing up for and that the IBC was the result of several baby steps, rather than one carefully planned effort. This experience demonstrates both how opportunities can arise from existing international relationships and the role of chance in identifying opportunities.

Alumni were also the source of several opportunities. As one interviewee explained, "we get approached a lot, particularly from alumni." Another interviewee noted that the institution seriously explored an opportunity in a country in Asia, whose president was an alumnus of the parent institution and wanted the parent institution to establish an IBC in his home country.

For other parent institutions, opportunities arose from "cold-call" solicitations from various private, academic, and government institutions interested in setting up a single IBC or education hub in their countries. The interviewees reported that these offers were often based on the international reputation and rank of the parent institution, with more prestigious institutions receiving more offers. As one interviewee who had been in management at an elite institution explained, "we probably were approached on average at least once or twice a week when I was there. I assume that calls have continued to come from all over the world." In comparison, non-elite universities received fewer cold calls.

As the above discussion highlights, the identification of IBC opportunities is more random than perfectly planned and rational. One interviewee explained, "Partly these things are accident. They're serendipity. You don't sit around and just sort of sagely ponder international opportunities." Similarly, another interviewee noted that "international initiatives are sometimes lucky breaks as much as logical strategic planning." Explaining further, she noted that "clearly, if you're building a campus, that does not happen by chance, but there's a path dependence to it and lots of beautiful things happen along the way. Then you end up with opportunities that you do or do not decide to take." To explain the idea of "path dependence," she continued "you get all these sort of background variables and then there are these windows of opportunity and if you've got the right people in place at that time then they will seize on those and use that window of opportunity and then you sort of get a rapture effect and things develop." This evidence supports the idea that IBCs are typically not pursued as the result of careful analysis of several potential opportunities in several different countries.

Evaluating Potential Partners

The individuals interviewed in this study overwhelming noted that an important part of the screening and selection process is finding and vetting a partnership offer. They emphasized that having a strong, supportive, trustworthy partner or partners was critical to the successful establishment and ongoing operation of the IBC. While IBCs are independent operations, not joint ventures, universities often pair with other universities, government partners, or entrepreneurs when establishing an IBC. These partners help them navigate the academic, legal, business, and cultural landscapes of the host countries. Academic partners—typically a university in the host country—might, for instance, work with the parent institution to navigate

the host country's academic regulations and expectations. They may also help them get accreditation. Government partners, such as a city or state-level partner, help parent institutions obtain permits, get appropriate business licenses, navigate the legal landscape, etc. Several interviewees noted that government support was also important in the accreditation process. Partners also typically provide certain types and amounts of financial support.

In order for the partnership to work, university leaders agreed that having a shared vision that recognizes and draws upon the relative expertise and resources of each party involved is crucial. As one interviewee noted, "there needs to be a kind of congruence of interest between, say, the academic partner, the political partner, the city, and economic interest, too." In other words, each stakeholder involved in negotiating the agreement needs to have a firm understanding of what the organization brings to the table and what it wants from the other stakeholders involved. Highlighting this point, one interviewee noted, "An appreciation, I think, of what American higher education can offer, a realistic appreciation of that on the part of our [host country] partners and the areas where they may offer strength for a joint venture institution are crucial." Clearly, the stakeholders need to be able to craft an agreement that draws upon each of their strengths and allows all of them to achieve their objectives.

Seconding the importance of a shared vision, another interviewee noted that "there's got to be the obvious things about a shared vision, shared recognition of the value of higher education, and the ability of a foreign provider to make a difference and operate effectively. So if that's not there, clearly nothing is going to work." At the same time, he also maintained that this alone is not enough, saying that "arguably you'd find a number of partners with that interest. So I think you then come down to a lot of questions about what their more specific objectives are. You need an alignment of more specific objectives, issues around capacity, [and the] ability to support."

Offers to establish IBCs range greatly in their attractiveness. In some cases, offers include land, operating expenses, facilities, and assistance navigating the legal and academic requirements of the host country. In other cases, the offer might just be for a free or low-cost piece of land. The interviewees in this study expressed the opinion that offers like the latter were not viable options. As a provost at an elite institution described, "we've been approached by several potential partners in China…but we haven't found a Chinese partner who actually has the

understanding of the financial considerations…In other words, you get a lot of Chinese partners who are willing to build buildings but they don't have operating capital."

In other cases, restrictions on the revenues may make opportunities financially impossible. As one interviewee noted, his university received an offer to go to a country in Southeast Asia. He said the potential partner told them that, "We'll give you the land but you can't charge more than $600 a year to your students and we won't give you any subsidies." Such offers, according to him, do not make any sense. Instead he said that a viable offer has to be one in which "they [partners] basically give you the land, they build you the university, and then they generally support you."

Even some well-supported offers, however, might not be appropriate for some parent institutions given their own missions and goals. Many universities, and especially universities that receive frequent offers, had key countries or regions of focus and were not interested in offers outside those areas. As one interviewee explained, they asked themselves "…what are some key regions of the world where we think [our university] eventually might want to be significantly engaged?" The provost of one university noted that its institution "decided about eight years ago that we would initially concentrate on East Asia and the Middle East."

While institutions might have a certain area of focus, many nonetheless did not completely exclude offers outside their stated areas of interest. Explaining this, one interviewee noted that "you want to listen to any approach that comes because sometimes they might make things possible. If somebody is offering significant financial resources to help make something happen, that's a factor." At the same time, he noted that institutions must consider the other non-financial factors such as "what other universities are there? What is the need? What are the academic strengths at [the parent institution]? Are there assets that could be brought to bear? And what's the opportunity? There are regions where there are lots of universities already, and there are some places, like Brazil…where not many western universities currently are partnered…[that are] going to be…important…over the next century."

Finally, strong working relationships and trust are also important. IBCs require an inherently large amount of risk and the commitment of each stakeholder to honor the terms of the agreement is critical for the success of the IBC. Supporting this statement, one interviewee noted, IBCs require "some elements of personal chemistry because, as you know, joint ventures

are difficult for all sorts of well-known reasons. You've always got some pull between the partners, so you need to have that good relationship and that trust to be able to work together."

Another interviewee pointed out the importance of trust at a personal level as well as at an institutional level, explaining that partnerships are "about individual trust and also institutional commitment. We've already gone through some changes of personality in terms of the individuals, but the institutions behind them have stuck by their commitments."

Highlighting the importance of strong relationships and commitments, an interviewee at another university with a very successful and rapidly expanding IBC noted that their partners are "financially credible, they're well run, they are robust and challenging but once you reach an agreement…move on. They don't try and revisit agreements. It feels quite anguishing sometimes going through the contract negotiations. We are expanding so rapidly out there we do this quite regularly, but once we agree on the contract they honor it, we honor it. So it's a very open and honest relationship. We deliver, they pay. They deliver, we pay, and it all works. So we don't have to spend too much time second guessing their motives…There are things they have to do, things we have to do, we just go on and do it. And it's become a very business-like relationship and it's underpinned by people, I think, who generally like each other. At the end of the day those partnerships fundamentally depend on the people on top liking each other and if they don't then it will never last. And they're reasonably open on their strategy. And I think, again, that's important."

Summary

Table 8 summarizes the findings from the interviews related to the parent institution's efforts to identify opportunities to establish an IBC.

Table 8. Summary of Findings from the Interviews: Stage 3, Opportunity Identification

Related Factors	Considerations in Opportunity Identification	Challenges
Identifying opportunities	• Opportunities arose from three main sources: existing partnerships abroad, alumni, and "cold-call" solicitations • Identification of opportunities is more random than perfectly planned and rational • Parent institutions evaluate potential opportunities they are presented with rather than seeking out opportunities without partners	• Establishing an IBC proactively without an academic and/or government partner is very expensive
Evaluating potential partners	• Offers to establish IBCs range greatly in attractiveness • Partners must have a shared vision that recognizes the relative expertise and contributions of both parties • A viable overseas partner must understand the need for operating capital and ongoing financial support • When they are invited to partner in a new IBC, institutions may backtrack and do some of the planning that would represent a first step if they proactively set out to establish an IBC	• Restrictions on revenues imposed by partners may make a potential IBC financially impossible • Inherent risk in establishing IBC requires partners' personal and institutional mutual trust • Some financially well-supported offers may be incompatible with institution's missions and goals

Screening, Decision-Making and Planning

The evidence confirms the idea expressed in the conceptual framework that once a parent institution has identified one or more potentially viable opportunities, it begins in-depth screening. During this stage, institutions evaluate several social, cultural, political, economic, and academic factors relevant to the establishment of the IBC. The conceptual framework suggests that these factors can be divided into three categories—factors related to the parent institution, to the host country, and to their interaction. However, the evidence finds that factors related to the partner are also critical.

In this section, I will outline the most important selection criteria as described by interviewees. I will discuss the variables separately, rather than grouped into the parent, host, and interaction categories, but I will identify how various parent, host country, interaction, *and partner* variables play a role. Finally, I will end this section by discussing the process by which institutions gathered information and evaluated the factors that influenced selection.

Existing Education Hubs

An important factor that affects the location decisions of institutions considering IBCs is whether or not to join an education hub. "Education hubs" are designated geographic locations intended to attract foreign providers and provide access to high-quality education and training for both international and domestic students. An education hub can include different combinations of domestic or international institutions, IBCs, and foreign partnerships, within the designated region (C-BERT, 2013). Examples include Dubai Knowledge Village in the United Arab Emirates and Songdo Global University Campus in South Korea. Hubs can be attractive because each of the participants in the hub benefits from the close proximity of similar institutions.

Joining a hub may reduce the costs of operating abroad. Establishing an IBC involves substantial risks and coordination costs. There are fixed and variable administrative costs which increase when an IBC is being managed across borders. The particular laws, customs, academic environment and business culture also differ between the parent and host nations. Agglomeration economies achieved through hubs can offset these costs. The presence of other universities in the region can help service communications, legal agreements, and other negotiations.

Parent institutions may benefit from the experience of IBCs who entered the hub before them. The uncertainties associated with opening an IBC and operating in a foreign country can be reduced if parent institutions go to areas that already have a large concentration of successful IBCs and work with partners that have already demonstrated their commitment to higher education in the region and their ability to adhere to the terms of the education hub.

Establishing an IBC in a hub may benefit universities by allowing them to share services, facilities, and faculty with other institutions. They may share support services such as facilities management, for instance, or facilities such as libraries or athletic fields. IBCs in a hub may be able to benefit from a higher concentration of qualified faculty in the same area. Universities needing an instructor for just a single course, for instance, may be able to recruit a professor from another university in the hub to teach that course rather than an entirely new faculty member. Having a larger number of faculty in one area, moreover, may also create more opportunities for research and collaboration among these faculty.

Additionally, a larger concentration of students might help the hub facilitate a stronger academic experience. While it is often difficult for a single university to offer a large number of extra-curricular activities and student services at an IBC, particularly when it is newer, close proximity to or even sharing campuses with other institutions may make it easier to create a more complete academic and social experience for the students.

There are downsides to being located in a hub. Universities with IBCs in hubs must compete with each other for students and work together to agree upon various decisions related to the hub This can make decision-making more difficult as several partners must agree on the terms. Universities considering locating in a hub must therefore weigh the benefits of agglomeration against its drawbacks.

Host Country Government Regulations

Institutions considering IBCs also reported that government rules, regulations, and laws—both formal and informal—are important factors in deciding whether or not to establish an IBC in a certain country. The most important considerations related to the rules and regulations regarding foreign-owned universities and financial incentives.

Some countries have laws regulating if and how a foreign institution can establish an IBC. In China, for instance, all foreign institutions are required to have a Chinese partner. This

requirement has discouraged some institutions from establishing IBCs there. Until recently in India, foreign providers were outright prohibited from establishing IBCs. Describing a failed process to establish an IBC in India, one interviewee explained "India at one time seemed to loom very large, but it's just gotten so complicated that it's…faded." This interviewee cited the failure of the Indian government to pass a foreign education bill, which he explained "was designed to make it more inviting for foreign universities to establish campuses." Unfortunately, however, it "got hung up in politics" and the IBC project fell through. While India eventually did pass a foreign education bill that allowed foreign universities to establish IBCs in India, prohibitive regulations at the time this university was thinking about establishing an IBC played a strong role in this particular partnership's failure.

While some countries place restrictions on whether or not foreign providers can establish IBCs and what types, others offer strong incentives as part of their economic and human capital development strategies. Dubai, Qatar, Singapore, and Malaysia, for instance, offer financial assistance, tax exemptions, and freedom from certain regulations. Some financial policies, however, may discourage the presence of an IBC or the presence of a certain type of IBC. In China, for instance, IBCs are not allowed to operate on a for-profit basis and this discourages institutions that hope to profit from an IBC.

Host Country Business Culture

Several factors related to the business culture of the host country also were described as important by interviewees. They cited the complexity of foreign bureaucracies and the ability to navigate the business environment as key issues. One interviewee noted, "Ways of doing business [are]…quite different, so developing a sort of institutional level of understanding of the cultural differences is quite a challenge."

Another interviewee noted that one of the biggest challenges "when you go into a new country is that you don't understand their bureaucracy. Don't underestimate how hard that is…there's just all kinds of stuff you've got to do." Elaborating on this point, another interviewee at an IBC in Europe noted, "Bureaucracy is pretty serious in [the host country]. To get building permits and all that sort of stuff" is difficult. Also, he continued, "there is a different legal environment… and so you've got to deal with an entire different system of labor relations [for example]. There are different laws about when you fire people and things like that."

Parent institutions favored countries that were more transparent, understandable, and uncomplicated. As one interviewee summarized, "When we were looking at the projects we set some criteria by which we were measuring the opportunities that we were evaluating, things like what's the regulatory framework, what's the government view of it, how difficult is it going to be to do business in this location or that location. I have to say [the country we chose] in general, as a location to do business and our particular kind of education project, was more favorable than [our other main option]. The highly complex regulations and national and local government structures would have been very, very complicated to navigate. [The country we chose] is quite complicated and bureaucratic, but it's easier than it would have been to work in [our other main option]. So anyway, we evaluated these projects and backed this one."

Several administrators also cited problems with corruption among the reasons for declining certain opportunities. Reflecting upon an opportunity, one interviewee with a parent-institution based in the U.K. noted, "On the various visits—and I visited quite a lot of places—I soon ruled out [one of our options] because of the margins [the difference between what they could charge for tuition and the cost of providing the education] and more important, because of corruption. It was very difficult for me to see how I could do it." I could not imagine "brown envelopes changing hands, particularly given that the U.K. has some of…the tightest bribery laws in the world. So even if you didn't do the bribery but you knew someone downstream did, you can [get into trouble]...so that was out."

Preferences of Parent Institution Leaders

The idiosyncratic preferences and personal connections of leadership also played a role in the decision to establish an IBC in a particular country. Some interviewees noted that leaders at their institutions favored opportunities in countries with which they had personal ties, for instance. As one interviewee noted, "I think with these things, there's also a bit that's emotional." While institutions often have "really good logical reasons [for establishing an IBC]...I think there's obviously also a personal connection."

Leaders' preferences for certain opportunities, countries, or regions might make them less willing to consider opportunities in other countries. An interviewee who had served on an international committee focused on evaluating opportunities for an elite university noted, "one of my great frustrations was I couldn't get [one of our key leaders] to come to [a potential host

country] because he was going to [the selected host country] and that was his focus."
Paraphrasing, this leader explained that once leaders make up their mind, it may be difficult to
convince them to look at other areas. For this reason, he noted, other stakeholders often have to
be willing to adapt and follow the vision of leadership.

Host Country Infrastructure

Infrastructure is also an important consideration for parent institutions, according to
interviewees. Parent institutions value locations in urban areas close to air and rail transportation.
Three administrators with IBCs located over an hour from international airports noted that lack
of transportation was a problem. One of these IBCs ultimately closed and another relocated its
campus to the city.

Local transportation is also important, especially since many students and faculty at the IBC
do not have cars. As one interviewee from an IBC in Europe described, "It's very easy to get
around. There are buses in the city, you can walk easily to the train station, [and] it is 20 minutes
to the airport to fly to other places." Other universities in more remote areas cited transportation
as an issue or potential issue but noted that recent improvements in access, such as the arrival of
a high-speed train in one case, have improved the problem.

Technological infrastructure is also necessary. Administrators noted that infrastructure to
support "distance conferencing facilities and…internet facilities of a fairly high order" were
necessary. Few administrators, however, cited infrastructure as a factor that made them decide
against a particular opportunity. This is not because technology wasn't important, but because
most of the offers seriously considered were in places with sufficient technological capacity. One
university planning a campus in South Korea, for instance, specifically said that South Korea is
ahead of them in terms of technological capabilities so technology infrastructure wouldn't be an
issue. The same was true about infrastructure needs such as safe, clean water, plumbing, medical
facilities, etc. No parent institutions even considered locations in places lacking in basic
infrastructure as they were often not areas with a student body population and funding to support
its operations.

Host Country Exchange Rates and Other Economic Issues

Exchange rates and currency volatility were a factor in some cases. Extreme currency instability was noted as one of the reasons for turning down an opportunity to establish an IBC in South America. As one interviewee noted, "I know we did try to go into a Spanish-speaking country. We wanted to go to Mexico or Chile or somewhere else, but there were problems with currency issues and economics so they had trouble making that work."

Identifying Sustainable Academic Programs

The selection of academic programs is a key part of the screening and evaluation of suitable IBC opportunities. Notably, it is part of the decision-making process itself, not something that is determined after the decision to establish an IBC in a particular country is made. This is because understanding the demand for, the willingness of students to pay for, and the feasibility of offering certain programs is necessary in order to determine whether or not the IBC can generate enough revenue to cover its costs.

Parent Institution Strengths

Administrators look at their own institution's strengths when selecting academic programs, which helps them obtain a competitive edge and offer high quality programs. One interviewee explained that "you don't want to go out there to offer something you are not very strong at." An interviewee at another university, with a strength in medicine, noted that "the best thing [our university] should do is build out from its medical expertise so the second course probably shouldn't be business. It should be biochemical studies. Then you go from biochemical studies perhaps to food nutrition, and from there you're going to some other sciences, and then perhaps go into business and build out that way."

Costs

Parent institutions must also consider the cost of facilities and faculty required for certain programs, weighing the costs of the programs against the alternatives. While certain programs may have a high demand, the provision of those programs or others may be prohibitively costly.

Some programs, for instance, may have extensive resource requirements. Discussing his institution's choice to offer a social science management program over other options, one interviewee noted, "It's a nice area because it doesn't involve terribly elaborate lab or technology

needs, so it's pretty straightforward in terms of what we have to ask [our host country] partners to provide." Another interviewee at a separate institution explained that given the necessary equipment and their high costs for majors such as biology, an IBC "wouldn't be able to have a lab or the other resources necessary to offer a credible academic experience."

Other academic programs require, and may have difficulty attracting, a large specialized faculty. One interviewee explained that "we have some very specialized programs; for example, petroleum engineering, where a high degree of specialization is required. So, one or two people can't deliver the program, even if there's, say, 30 students in the course. You need to have quite a wide range of expertise to deliver that program." Another challenge lies in attracting professors in the sciences. One interviewee explained, "It's sometimes a little harder to persuade engineers that spending periods abroad is professionally beneficial."

One of the most commonly selected fields is business. In fact, according to the OBHE, over 60 percent of IBCs offer business at the undergraduate or graduate level (OBHE, 2012). It is chosen on account of its high demand worldwide and the fact that it can be provided at a relatively low cost since it does not require sophisticated facilities or a highly specialized faculty. Illustrating this point, one interviewee at a parent institution with multiple campuses explained that all campuses offer business because "Business enables you to get a viable number quite quickly and you can start to make margins quite quickly."

Stability and Risks of Academic Programs

Universities also consider the stability and risks associated with their selection of academic programs. Some institutions focus on one small program and expand later if the initial effort is successful as a means of containing the risk of failure, while others offer multiple programs for better insulation against risks. For example, one interviewee stated that her institution had the opportunity to teach a particular field at a hub, but declined due to the risks involved in teaching only one program. The interviewee said, "I just didn't like that model. If, for example, … you've got 20 programs and let's say there's… a big downturn in the building sector and so people don't want to do construction program management, that's okay because you've got all these other courses that grow. Whereas if you're only doing construction program management or built environment subjects, and there's a big downturn in the built environment, planning, construction program management, or architectural sectors, you have nowhere else to cover your costs. I decided that it wouldn't fit our framework."

Another consideration, she noted, was the ability of the university to select its own academic programs. Describing the declined offer once again, she said that "you only had the opportunity for limited curriculum development. You could never become a fully-fledged university doing all the subjects, whereas in [other host countries], we…can choose to do whatever subjects we want. That's the model I like."

Location-Specific Program Opportunities and Advantages

The existence of certain programs helps attract social and intellectual capital. One interviewee stated that "the kinds of partnerships and relationships [that] are developed within the country with other firms and NGOs" are very important. He expressed his belief that parent institutions should ask questions such as "How do you develop…intellectual capital over time? Does it generate new forms of research?" Providing an example from his own institution, he noted that due to its IBC abroad, it attracted a researcher who was "interested in expanding [his research on obesity] cross culturally." He added, "That's the kind of intellectual capital that [the parent institution] wouldn't have been able to attract if we didn't have a partnership in [the host country]."

Certain locations may also offer strong research opportunities. One interviewee noted that "being a part of the [education hub] presents exciting research opportunities." Continuing, he explained that the host country is setting up a research center in the education hub that will focus on a certain topic of research–the same topic of research that the parent institution planned to specialize in–and is inviting several companies who work in that topic area to collaborate with the parent institution and other universities at the hub. He said that his university reasoned that "if we can offer programs [in the same topic area] over there, we are in a good environment…" and noted that the host country's new research center influenced his university's decision to pursue the IBC in that particular hub.

Finally, universities also consider what programs "make sense to offer in an international setting." Some programs are especially well suited to take advantage of the international setting to enrich the academic experience. Academic programs such as international business and international relations that benefit from immersion in a foreign culture or interaction with an international population are two examples. For students enrolled in these and other programs, the opportunity to study in multiple locations is seen as a benefit. Internationally-focused programs also attract faculty to teach at the IBC because the programs provide opportunities to build

research relationships and conduct research abroad. An IBC in China, for instance, might give scholars interested in topics like global health the opportunity to collaborate with local Chinese global health scholars. One leader noted that it is difficult to get faculty and students in fields such as engineering or biology to study abroad because being abroad does not necessarily benefit them. But a student majoring in Chinese studies would benefit from spending time in China and an international relations professor might benefit from working abroad and collaborating with researchers in another country.

Education Culture

Differences in the educational culture between the parent institution and host country are important when the parent institution selects academic programs. One interviewee noted that in different cultures there exists "different learning styles and different students. Chinese students, for example, are not used to being put on the spot and being asked for their opinions. So they have a 'conversion year'"—a year during which they focus on improving their English and getting used to the British way of teaching and learning.

Cultural differences also affect the teaching styles in some academic programs. One professor notes that "you have to be really highly aware of [differences in the educational culture] because some of the discussions or exercises that work really well at [the parent campus]... might fall a little flat at [the IBC]." Professors must learn how their students think and change their teaching styles to reflect the education culture of the IBC.

Market Share

As Levy's framework argues, universities often select programs in markets that allow them to gain market share by offering something better or different than local alternatives or by absorbing excess demand. One interviewee's university differentiated itself by offering a new way of teaching. This interviewee explained that "we were unique because we were offering not only a subject that was popular, but...a very new way of offering it. I think the [host country] thought that the environment in which their students would be studying was just as important— perhaps more important—than the subject they were studying." Another institution carved out a niche by offering a subject not otherwise taught in the area, explaining that "we look at the demographics … and look for a vacuum we can fill."

Another key concern administrators expressed is the ability of their institution to differentiate their programs from local alternatives. One interviewee acknowledged that "the challenge will be how different [our programs] are from the programs that are offered by [local] universities and if they are attractive enough to get students." Continuing he explained that, "The students will have to pay a big…fee, which is so important to our success [the IBC's ability to generate enough tuition revenue to cover its costs]." He questioned whether or not his university can "really deliver something that is ahead of what the [local] university is doing."

Interest among Parent Institution Faculty and Students

Parent institutions consider the demand for certain programs among students in the host country as well as the interest of students and faculty at the parent institution. Because parent institutions need to attract students and staff to the IBC, both from the parent country and from the host country, the interest of students and faculty at the parent institution is important for gauging the viability of an IBC. One interviewee asserted that "The interest and engagement among faculty here was very high, there were already people working on issues related to [the host country]." There also existed a "perceived demand among students [and the belief that the host country] is of great interest. So there was kind of an appetite here, interest there, and a sense that the student demand would be very high."

Host Country Program Requests

As previously discussed, most IBCs are not initiated entirely by the parent institution but by invitations from people or institutions in the host country as well, particularly those IBCs established in the past 20 years. The host country may reach out to a particular institution to establish an IBC to teach specific academic programs. This is especially the case in education hubs, where the host country often invites several universities to establish IBCs, each with a different area of focus. The host country typically chooses parent institutions for particular academic programs based on the academic reputation, expertise, and international experience of the institution.

Administrators at parent institutions overwhelmingly stated that in cases where they were recruited by a host country, the host country chose the parent institution based on its "rankings" and/or expertise in a particular field of study. Planning documents from Songdo Global University support this. "Attracting universities with strengths in IT, BT, and other cutting-edge,

knowledge-based industries" was a stated goal in a document outlining its development strategy (Songdo Global University, 2014). The universities they have recruited so far, such as the State University of New York (SUNY), University of Utah, Ghent University, and George Mason University, are all ranked in the Top 100 universities worldwide according to the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) or Shanghai Rankings.

The international experience of the university is also an important consideration. Planning documents from Songdo Global University support this idea as well, stating that "to attract universities with extensive global experience in industry-university-research cooperation" is a key part of its development strategy (Ibid.). Successful international efforts and existing partnerships abroad may also help host nations identify potential universities for the establishment of IBCs. As one interviewee at a university with extensive international experience explained, "[one of our departments] started doing partnerships with…higher educational institutions, around the world...That essentially got [our entire university] noticed in international markets. And when [that department] was in a market, people [from the host country] would say, 'Well, we're also interested in getting [another subject]. Do you do [that subject]?' And so [our university] thought, 'Oh. We should do this.'"

Host country partners also select institutions and academic programs based on the needs of their particular region. As one parent institution explained, "the reason we went with engineering was because that's what the government wanted. It's a mining area, so they wanted civil engineering…They also wanted nursing [and] gerontology since it's an area where people want to go to retire." Other region-specific cultural considerations may also come into play. One interviewee at a parent institution with an IBC in Qatar noted that although there wasn't initially a large industrial base for the academic program they were being invited to offer, demand for this program among female students was high. The interviewee explained that "it wasn't that common for [females] to study abroad without being chaperoned. And so her Highness and the Emir wanted to bring the education to them."

In cases where the host country approaches the parent institution to teach a particular subject or set of subjects in which it has expertise, the parent institution often has little choice about what academic program it can offer. Instead the parent institution has to make a decision regarding whether or not it can successfully offer the requested program in that particular country.

Assessing student demand for the program, the students' and host country's willingness to pay, program costs, and program risks are crucial for the assessment of the program's viability.

<u>Student Demand in the Host Country</u>

Student demand for a program is a critical host-country factor universities must consider when deciding whether or not to offer a certain academic program. Like host countries, parent institutions also consider the demand for particular academic programs, their own strengths, and the suitability of the program for the international setting.

Evidence from the interviews revealed that universities assess demand differently, with some relying on informal discussions or requests from students and trial and error, and others conducting in-depth market analyses and even using outside consulting firms to conduct market research. Among the interviewed institutions, there was a tendency towards more sophisticated research in newly established IBCs while leaders of more-established IBCs reported that they (or their predecessors) relied more on advice from their partners, previous experience, and other less-formal measures. The tendency for more rigorous due diligence is perhaps a result of universities becoming increasingly aware of the significant financial and reputational risks associated with a failed IBC and the pressure that comes with that.

Highlighting the less formal approach of a more well-established IBC, one interviewee noted "when students repeatedly come to our admissions office and say, 'I'd like to study psychology. I'd like to study psychology.' that suggests to us that "there is a demand for certain programs. We investigate to see if it makes sense to offer them here." When making this decision, "we look at the type of students we will be having and what their interests seem to be and then what's available as far as professors in the area."

Other universities take a more formal approach. As an interviewee at an institution in the process of establishing an IBC noted, "We've got third party companies who provide market inputs at a more strategic level and then, as we think of new courses, we do more course-specific market testing as well." Third party companies help the institutions answer questions like, "Is there any market?" Will that market go to [the IBC]?" "If they will, what's the price likely to be?"

In conducting these analyses, parent institutions frequently start by considering what subjects are most popular in certain regions. One way they make these determinations is by consulting with educational partners. As one interviewee noted, "when it comes right down to it, you have

to trust your partner to be sufficiently in touch with the market place and to be able to say there's demand or there isn't demand." Another factor universities consider is the popularity of particular academic programs within the host country. As one interviewee noted, "In the host country, engineering is really high up on the list of requirements, a bit like it is in the U.S. To be an engineer is good, engineering is popular." Finally, institutions also look at the enrollment choices of students studying abroad. As one interviewee at a United Kingdom institution noted, "The demand for business is very high and if you look at international student numbers in the U.K., business, by a long way, outstrips the other subjects."

Linked to demand are local needs and labor markets, which are also taken into consideration. As one interviewee noted, "local demand is linked to the local priorities." In [the host country], she noted, "agriculture-related topics and global food security are big issues while in [another host country], it's energy and manufacturing." When considering the academic programs to select, this interviewee noted that her institution's goal was to combine the research, teaching, and learning strengths of its institution in consideration of "local demand and the fit with the local strategy and priorities."

Willingness and Ability to Pay in the Host Country

The ability of an IBC to charge and collect tuition commensurate with the cost of providing the education is important. This is particularly the case for IBCs that rely on tuition rather than funding from the host country to operate, although even in IBCs fully paid for or heavily subsidized by the host country, the parent institution still must assess whether or not the IBC could eventually support itself if or when funding is discontinued.

Institutions consider several factors when determining what amount of tuition they can charge. The cost of providing the education is often a primary consideration. As one interviewee explained, "The tuition we're proposing…is reflective of the real cost. A world class education is never paid for by tuition alone and so we are subsidizing the programs, but there's no reason not to charge something approximating what it really costs to deliver the quality that we're aiming to deliver." The interviewee continued, "In raising money for scholarship funds we should be asking for contributions that again reflect what it really costs to provide the education."

Charging tuition in line with international prices for top quality institutions protects the image of the university and quality of the education, and prevents competition between the IBC and the parent institution. One interviewee noted that charging tuition in line with the cost of

actually providing the education produced a "signaling effect." He explained, "We don't want to set up a discounted program that looks inferior and competes with our domestic programs. So for that reason we have been maintaining that the right strategy is to charge a sort of sticker price that's comparable to [the parent institution]." In order to make the IBC more accessible to economically disadvantaged students in the host country, however, the interviewee noted that its institution intends "to offer scholarships…that are, say, full tuition or half tuition or…have in-state or in-country and out-of-country tuition rates."

In order to determine whether or not students in the host country can actually afford the cost of the education at the IBC, parent institutions must consider factors such as the price of a local education, government subsidies, and students' willingness to pay. In countries where local tuition rates are very low, such as India, it may be difficult to charge much more than local rates.

Willingness to pay is also an important consideration. Parent institutions considering IBCs often consider the level of emphasis on education and willingness to pay for it within a particular country. They look at the willingness to pay for the IBC specifically. A publically available feasibility study on George Mason University's proposed campus in Songdo, South Korea, found that while many parents were willing to pay high tuition rates for an American education abroad, they were not willing to pay the same tuition rates for an American education in Asia. This is because they considered the experience of living in the United States to be an integral part of the educational experience. They did not find the IBC and parent institution experiences to be equal and thus were not willing to pay the same price at both institutions.

Summary

Table 9 summarizes the findings from the interviews related to screening, decision-making, and planning.

Table 9. Summary of Findings from the Interviews: Stage 4, Screening, Decision-Making and Planning

Related Factors	Considerations in Screening, Decision-Making and Planning	Challenges
Existing education hubs	• Reduced costs from shared services, facilities, administrators, and faculty • Learning from experiences of previously established IBCs in the hub • Increased academic and extra-curricular opportunities for students • Opportunities for joint communication and negotiation with host country partners	• Competition for students • Time-consuming and difficult joint negotiations

Host country government regulations	• Financial assistance, tax exemption, and freedom from certain regulations offered by some countries	• Restrictions on
		  – establishment of IBCs
		  – certain types of IBCs, such as for-profit IBCs
		  – repatriation of earned revenue
		
		• Requirements such as having a national academic partner

Host country business culture	• Transparent and understandable business culture	• Complexity of foreign bureaucracies and the ability to navigate a different business environment • Difficult-to-navigate permits, laws, and other necessities • Corruption
Preferences of parent institution leaders	• Personal and professional connections that lead to opportunities	• Resistance of leaders to consider some countries due to personal preferences
Host country infrastructure	• Preference for locations in urban areas close to air and rail transportation • Adequate technology structure	• Non-existent or inadequate local transportation
Host country economic issues	• Stable currency	• Extreme currency instability

Table 9. continued

Related Factors	Considerations in Screening, Decision-Making and Planning	Challenges
Sustainable academic programs	• Parent institution strengths • Costs • Stability/risks of academic programs • Location-specific program opportunities and advantages • Education culture • Market share • Interest from parent institution faculty and students • Host country program requests • Student demand in host country • Ability to pay in host country	• Programs for which the parent institution is not relatively strong • Programs that need extensive resources or specialized faculty rather than low-cost programs such as business • Risks of selecting only one academic program that requires large investment or offering one program first, then expanding • Restrictions on program types from host country partners • Limitations on autonomy to select academic programs and adapt to market demand • Programs that do not benefit from international setting • Inability of programs or locations to attract faculty and social and intellectual capital • Cultural and language differences that impact teaching or learning styles • Large fees relative to local alternatives • Difficulty attracting faculty from parent campus • Inaccurate assessments of student demand • Students unwilling to pay parent institution prices for a degree • IBC accessible only to wealthy students • Reduced student applicant pool

Operationalization

Getting the IBC up and running requires a variety of large and small tasks. Two of the most important are finalizing plans for the course of study at the IBC and getting faculty and staff in place to run the institution and teach the courses. Staffing up is the most complicated of the two tasks, and the discussion of it in this section (after the discussion of course and program planning) is divided as follows: Three Sources for Recruiting Faculty and Staff; Attracting and Retaining Faculty and Staff; and Ensuring the Quality of Faculty and Staff.

Additional Course and Program Planning

Once a university selects a particular field of study, several choices have to be made. The most important are the level of study, program structure, adaptations to the local context, and course length.

Level of Study

First, an institution needs to decide if it wants to offer undergraduate-level programs, graduate-level programs, or both. As one interviewee noted, "it's simply much harder to develop a high quality undergraduate education at scale." Undergraduate programs require more extensive resources, on average, than graduate programs. As one interviewee described, "to do an undergraduate education on the level of what [the parent institution] expects, you need so many more faculty because you have so many more disciplines involved." Speaking about a proposed IBC at another institution which will offer a liberal arts education, one interviewee noted that "what they're developing is fascinating but it's a huge undertaking and even…with 100 faculty, that's pretty small to deliver a quality liberal arts education." Continuing, he explained it's not just the faculty but the "communal environment, the residential life, and it's all sorts of things beyond that including athletics."

In contrast, "you can do a master's level program in a high quality way with much more focused attention both in terms of the number of faculty and the amount of time that the faculty are engaged." Another interviewee explained, while undergraduates expect a large number of facilities to support extracurricular activities, there's "not an expectation in the same way for graduate professional students. So it's both the curricular experience of what's necessary to produce a really well-educated undergraduate and then it's all the co-curricular things as well."

Given these difficulties, one approach universities are taking is to start with a master's program and then slowly develop additional programs. As one interviewee noted "and so you can experiment, develop high quality programs at a master's level and that gives you the increased capacity to expand back to the undergraduate level." Another interviewee explained, even with its various challenges, "I think eventually undergraduate education can be done, I just think it's better to gain familiarity at the master's level, learn how to do it really well, and then move it back to the undergraduate level."

Program Structure

Another important consideration in the design of academic programs is structure. While IBCs by definition have the courses to allow a student to complete an entire academic program at the IBC, many students at IBCs are interested in spending a certain amount of their time at the parent institution. Leaders at parent institutions, likewise, agree that spending some time abroad can be an essential part of a student's academic experience.

Universities often consider the relevance of international experience for particular programs. As one interviewee noted, the amount of time a student is required to spend at another campus, "varies from program to program. Our business program…explicitly has them spending about 50 percent of their time here on [the parent] campus before finishing up the program in [the host country]. In other programs the students may not spend nearly that much time. They might have the opportunity to apply for funds to conduct thesis research, for example, but not all programs will be 50/50."

Requirements to spend time abroad may also depend on the student experience at the IBC. IBCs with greater diversity, for example, may not find it as necessary for their students to go abroad. As one interviewee described, "our goal really is to build an international experience in [the host country]. In other words, if you were to go to the [IBC]…, you'd think you were at an international university. So that's why the student ratio is about 50 percent students [from the host country] and 50 percent other international students. So our success is really going to be contingent upon supplying that international experience."

For practical reasons, some programs at IBCs may require that the student spend some amount of time at the parent institution, at least at the beginning. As one interviewee noted, for several programs, "it was never intended that the students would complete all four years in [the host country]." She says "in the case of Engineering and Computer Science, partly based on

equipment, they would all have to complete their degree in the U.K. So they'd do their first two years in [the host country] and their second two years in the U.K." As capacity for this program developed at the IBC, however, this requirement became optional. As the interviewee noted, "from this year onwards students will be able to complete all four years in [the host country] if they wish."

Adaptations to the Local Context

Many universities adapt their academic programs to fit the local context. One of the most common adaptations is the inclusion or exclusion of certain courses. As one interviewee noted, "there's no point in having something about flooding and water management at [the parent institution] and then saying, 'Okay we're going to run that on the campus in [the Middle East],' if it isn't relevant to them. It's got to relate to the local situation. It's what we call contextualization." Continuing, she explains "if you wanted to launch a very sensible course on desalination and water management you wouldn't want to do it in [the U.K.] because we're awash with water. Nobody is going to do desalination here, but a lot of people would want to do it over there [in the Middle East]." In such cases, a university might require that students at both the parent institution and the IBC take the same core courses but they could choose different electives. At the same time, consideration must be given to what can and cannot be approved. To maintain accreditation of both campuses, most universities require that courses offered at the parent campus also be offered at the IBC, and vice versa. As a result, some parent institutions are unable to offer electives more relevant to the IBC locale because they can't offer them at the parent campus as well. Also, curriculum committees typically have to approve any changes and the process of getting courses approved can be time-consuming.

Some universities offer the same courses, but adapt the content to fit the context of each location. An interviewee at one institution that operates an IBC in Asia explained that a course about food regulations would add content relevant to Asia, such as "food regulations in Asia, and regulations related to the import and export of food from Europe to Asia, and from Asia to Europe."

Course Scheduling

Another key consideration is course scheduling. Some universities are using alternative schedules and experimenting with courses of different lengths to help IBCs attract faculty who

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may not want to spend an entire semester at the IBC but may be willing to spend a shorter time there. As one interviewee explained, "at [the IBC] we're considering shorter, more intense periods for teaching courses rather than 14 weeks—seven weeks possibly. So rather than having a semester that's broken up into four courses for 14 weeks, we're considering organizing the semester with two courses for seven weeks and then another two courses for seven weeks." Explaining the rationale for this decision, another interviewee at the same institution noted that by offering alternative teaching schedules, the university hoped to make "the teaching experience more attractive to…faculty because they can go to the IBC and, for instance, teach double time, teach more intensively for seven weeks and then return to their parent institution or stay here [in the host country] and have some free time.

Sources for Recruiting Faculty and Staff

Bringing faculty and staff to a new IBC is a huge part of establishing the IBC. No higher education can operate without professors and support staff. In addition, faculty and staff salaries are one of the main costs of an IBC, and the quality of faculty is key to the overall quality of the IBC. This discussion will focus on faculty; i.e., the teaching staff, and particularly staffing models, attracting and retaining faculty, and assuring the quality of faculty.

IBCs obtain faculty from three main sources: the parent institution, as either seconded[6] faculty or "fly-in faculty;" the host country; and the international job market. Staffing models vary widely, from the bulk of the instruction being delivered by a mix of local hires and faculty from the parent institution who teach short-term, to more traditional arrangements, where instruction is delivered mainly by full-time faculty based at the IBC. The interviewees reported that each staffing model has advantages and disadvantages in terms of quality, continuity, costs, and ease of recruitment. These advantages and disadvantages are summarized in Table 5. The composition of faculty and their roles at the IBCs also vary by institution and tend to change over time.

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[6] Generally, the term "seconded" refers to someone who is temporarily sent somewhere else, typically by their own employer, to perform special duties. In the context of IBCs, the term "seconded" describes a faculty or staff member from the parent institution who takes a temporary position at an IBC, after which he or she returns to the parent institution unless other arrangements are made.

Nearly all of the institutions included in this study relied on faculty from the parent institution to deliver courses. They were either seconded faculty, teaching for periods of one semester or more, or "fly-in faculty," so called on account of their short (often less than four weeks) and intermittent periods abroad. Although no exact figures on the number of seconded and fly-in faculty were obtained in this study, one recently published study reports that among the seven cases examined in their study, the number of full-time faculty from the parent institution ranged between 0 percent and 25 percent, with an average of 7 percent (Fielden and Gillard, 2011). Faculty from the parent institution, therefore, often represent a small fraction of the total staff. Anecdotal evidence from this study supports these numbers.

Despite their small numbers, faculty from the parent institution fill key leadership and teaching positions and play a crucial role in the establishment of new IBCs. While relatively expensive and difficult to attract and retain, faculty from the parent institution are experts in their fields and have a strong understanding of the parent institution's mission, goals, and culture. They play a crucial role in providing administrative oversight, fostering academic relationships, and transmitting the parent institution's culture to the IBC. They are also thought to deliver the highest-quality teaching.

As one interviewee at a university planning to open an IBC in the near future remarked, "During the first two years we will hire in some senior people from the parent institution, who, besides having the teaching and scientific skills [necessary] for their subject, are also recruited on the basis of their managerial skills… These individuals will be crucial. The way that they handle the campus will mean the failure or success of the whole thing." The suggestion, then, is that the first senior faculty from the parent institution are responsible for attracting and retaining the rest of the faculty and a student base. This means creating an environment that not only attracts people but meets or exceeds their expectations (and thus encourages them to stay). The ability of these managers to develop and deliver strong academic programs for students and foster research opportunities for faculty important for the success of the IBC.

Recognizing the unique strengths of faculty recruited from the parent institution, many established IBCs draw upon individuals from the parent institution for nearly all of the leadership positions. As one interviewee noted, "Deans, vice-Provosts, […and the] provost are all seconded." This practice ensures that the culture and values at the IBC reflect those of the parent

institution, the argument being that only those who have spent significant time at the parent institution are truly able to understand its mission, goals, and culture and to foster those intangibles abroad. Summarizing this idea, one interviewee at an institution with a campus in China explained, "the seconded idea is important for the university because if you are going to establish a branch campus you have to show that this is the [parent institution] in China and it's the [parent institution] experience. To do this, you have to have people [from the parent institution] centrally involved… [who] have a sense of what's important to and about [the parent institution]."

The use of seconded and fly-in faculty at the institutions represented by the interviewees varied significantly based on institutional factors and the level of expertise required at the IBCs. Newer campuses, for example, tended to rely more extensively on fly-in faculty as they offered the advantage of having a firm understanding of the parent institution's culture and academic standards, but were easier to attract relative to longer-term, seconded faculty. As one interviewee at a parent institution making plans for an IBC noted, "At the start of the program we will rely heavily on fly-in faculty. [Although] we will have permanent staff over there, 60 percent of courses will be offered by fly-in faculty."

Offering one rationale for this model, another interviewee cited the key role of fly-in faculty in attracting students to the branch campus, arguing that "if [fly-in faculty] go for one month or two weeks, for example, and deliver…intensive courses, this will attract students from all the universities in [the region] and will gradually build the [student] network." The rationale behind this is that these high-quality professors are relatively more attractive to the students and thus better able to spur additional interest in the institution. Their presence can also help IBCs expand their course catalog, which also makes the IBCs more appealing to students.

As overseas campuses mature, however, there is often a move away from fly-in faculty in favor of a larger share of longer-term, locally-based staff. The main reason for this shift is to increase continuity for the students, thus improving the quality of instruction. One interviewee recalls, "At the start it was difficult [to attract and retain faculty at the IBC] but I think we quickly realized that you couldn't do a 'fly-[in]' model... You can't fly [in] faculty, do a bit of teaching, and then fly them back because the students want to ask questions afterwards. They want tutorials from the people who taught them, not somebody else. So we quickly realized that

we had to have staff permanently based in [the host country] … Now we have very, very few, fly-[in] faculty."

Even among more established IBCs, however, the use of fly-in faculty often plays a crucial role. As several administrators note, it is often only through the use of fly-in faculty that universities are able to attract "Nobel Prize winners" and other high quality academics to their branch campuses. Although it would be preferable from the perspective of the IBC that such professors be seconded for a longer period of time, most institutions would rather have them for a short period of time rather than not at all. These faculty give students the opportunity to learn from world-renowned experts and they build the university's prestige abroad. They also provide the students with the opportunity to take courses in areas not offered by full-time staff.

Finally, fly-in faculty promote connectivity with the parent institution. As expected, a staffing strategy that recruits close to 90 percent of its academic staff from outside the parent institution runs the risk of failing to develop an institutional culture that can be integrated with the parent institution. By providing a constant supply of staff privy to the current climate of the parent institution, fly-in faculty help mitigate this risk.

While faculty from the parent institution bring several advantages, they also have a few distinct disadvantages as well. Most notably, they are often difficult to recruit due to the limited research opportunities and taxing teaching requirements typical of IBCs. Speaking to this point, one interviewee noted "I would say for both [of our IBCs] the biggest challenge is staffing… Persuading people that this is a good thing for them to do is often initially very difficult. [In regards to] the research track, the people in the promotion track, have this fear of going out and missing three years at a crucial time and then just not being able to get back on that track. Persuading staff — and the right staff, of course — I think is very, very difficult." It also may be difficult for some faculty to manage their commitments at the parent institution; unless their departments allow them additional time to prepare for their time abroad, key faculty might refuse to travel.

Notably, however, the willingness of faculty to go to an IBC has been shown to change over time as the campus matures. As one interviewee noted, "at the start, when we wanted people to go out fairly quickly, certainly it was easier for those towards the end of their careers to say, 'Well I was only going to do a few more years. I'd be happy to travel out to [the host country] and cover the teaching there' [and] we allowed them to take that option. [Thus, while most of

our] local faculty were...in their late forties or fifties, the ones who were going out from [the parent institution], were often heading towards retirement age." The same interviewee noted significant changes after several years. "Our principal…sets the goals for what we're looking for, and I see faculty now rising to the challenge. And that's faculty of all ages." In the same vein, however, poorly managed programs often result in less willingness to go abroad over time. As one professor describes, the main problems in attracting and retaining faculty and staff from the parent campus of his institution are "poor management [and] poor treatment of faculty… [At the branch, administrators often] treat people […poorly] and just abuse people. [They] intimidate them, pay them horribly etc."

A final disadvantage of faculty from the parent institution is that they are often expensive. In most cases, incentive pay, return plane tickets, health care, housing, and other costly benefits must be offered to faculty in order to make it worth their while to teach at the IBC (a topic that will be discussed in greater detail in subsequent sections). The need to offer benefits and incentives and the high cost of doing so make recruiting faculty from the parent institution even more challenging. The challenge is exacerbated by the fact that parent institutions may not be making as much money from tuition as they do at the parent institution; tuition at IBCs is usually lower than at the parent institution due to the lower cost of comparable alternatives in the host country.

<u>Local Hires</u>

Given the relatively high expense of seconding and flying in professors from the parent institutions, coupled with concerns about continuity, many parent institutions and their IBCs have looked to international recruits or local hires to meet their needs for faculty. Local hires are the least costly of the three options and provide the greatest continuity for students as they tend to have a vested interest in the host country.

Local hires may be brought on as full-time or adjunct faculty. At least two parent institutions in this study noted a heavy reliance on adjunct professors for their staffing needs. Administrators at these universities said that they could pretty easily "source a lot of adjunct faculty who have their academic credentials but are currently [working as] practitioners in the field." An American expat living in the country where the IBC is located, for instance, might welcome the opportunity to teach at the IBC because it both calls on the expat's expertise in the foreign country and resembles a university in their home country.

Professors at other universities in the host country also provide a low-cost source of faculty. As one interviewee at a university located in an educational hub explained "it would be stupid for us to send or internally hire a professor for teaching English when there are American universities on campus, one of which teaches languages." As suggested by this remark, IBCs in hubs can also benefit from having a large body of faculty in a wide variety of disciplines to draw upon.

While administrative support staff may be easily obtained on the local market, faculty members are often difficult to recruit from the local market, most often due to a lack of acceptably credentialed academics with relevant teaching experience (most IBCs require a Ph.D. from a top-ranked Western institution and teaching experience). Highlighting this point, one interviewee noted that at her institution's IBC in China "nearly all the admin staff…were Chinese nationals recruited locally…[but] all the academic staff were non-Chinese staff recruited internationally."

In some countries, this is changing. A high-ranking interviewee at a university with an IBC in Qatar stated that her institution's new agreement with officials in Qatar includes a strong "effort to build Qatari faculty." She explained that, "They're really building a country…and that to me makes it very exciting… We're going to be here [and] then we're going to leave…How long we actually stay there as an entity remains to be seen, but while we're there they're using us in not subtle ways to build up their own country and to build up their own education system. I wouldn't be surprised if in 20 years, [our university] isn't there anymore or is there in a very different [way]."

Despite the changing nature of the situation, most universities, particularly those in developing nations, simply cannot procure an adequate number of qualified faculty through local sources. This fact, coupled with the general unwillingness of faculty from the parent institution to work abroad and student demand for Western teachers with Western experience, recruitment from international channels was the norm at nearly all of the IBCs represented in this study.

<u>International Recruits</u>

Internationally recruited faculty come from a variety of countries and backgrounds. They are typically evaluated using the same criteria as faculty hired into the parent institution and, accordingly, often possess Ph.D.'s and teaching experience from U.S, European, or Australian institutions. Despite these stringent requirements, the universities represented in the study

reported little trouble recruiting international faculty members. One interviewee, in fact, boasted that his institution is "in a luxurious position to be quite honest. [We often receive] open solicitations for jobs. Nearly every week we get CVs from people who want to come and teach for us. [International recruitment] has never been a huge problem."

Like faculty on long-term secondment, international faculty provide the continuity and quality of education that students demand. As one interviewee noted, the "thing that I think made us successful is we had staff there all the time and that meant the student experience was good. The students actually could talk to the guy who gave them the lecture at any time during the year."

While internationally recruited faculty are typically well-qualified, easier to recruit in many markets (relative to faculty from the parent institutions), and offer continuity, they nonetheless have their drawbacks. First, like seconded faculty, they are often costly as compensation packages must be internationally competitive in order to attract and retain the most qualified candidates. In addition, having too many international faculty and staff may make it difficult to maintain the culture of the parent institution as few international hires have actually spent any time at the parent institution As the provost of one American university explains "there was a concern of mine - and I'm not sure if anybody understood or agreed with me - but if you're hiring faculty to teach on a Western campus and they've never taught on a Western campus,…how is it that you're going to have this American campus? You've got a cross-cultural misfit."

Finally, when recruiting internationally, there are important differences regarding what is expected from faculty. Identifying faculty whose idea of the role of a faculty member is in line with the hiring institution's idea is critical. Several universities noted problems. One interviewee recalled that the "leadership hired a subsidiary [organization] to run the campus….[and] their style of organization and what they view as a college wasn't [in line with] our style of organization." For the university, faculty obligations included holding office hours, teaching, conducting research, and doing service, but "their point of view was that faculty needed to be there at 8 am and couldn't leave until 5:00 pm. They ran it as a traditional K-12 school instead of…a university."

Attracting and Retaining Faculty and Staff

When parent institutions are considering the establishment of an IBC, evaluating their ability to attract and retain qualified staff at the IBC is one of the most difficult, yet most critical, aspects of the decision-making process. Along with factors such as the parent institution's reputation, the quality of the IBC facilities, and the price for an education at the IBC, the quality and competency of the IBC faculty differentiate the IBC from other institutions and give it an edge over the competition. Data from this study reveal that the universities in this sample rely predominantly on pay and benefits, the quality of the research and cultural environment at the IBC, and mandatory appointments to recruit faculty to their overseas campuses. They retained (or did not retain) faculty largely based on the availability of research and advancement opportunities, the quality of campus life, and the faculties' overall satisfaction with the location of the IBC and living conditions in the host country. In this section, I will discuss the main strategies for attracting and retaining qualified faculty reported in the interviews and provide examples of how universities in this study utilize these strategies.

Table 10. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Different Sources of Faculty

Source	Advantages	Disadvantages
Fly-in	• Extremely high quality (often top experts in their fields) • Very strong connectivity to parent institution • Strong understanding of culture and values of parent institution • High potential to build research capacity	• Short tenure (low continuity in teaching) • Very high cost (due to travel and airfare expenses) • Somewhat difficult to recruit
Long-term secondment	• High quality • Strong connectivity to parent institution • Strong understanding of culture and values of parent institution • Moderate teaching tenure (typically 1-3 years) • High potential to build research capacity	• High cost (due to salary premiums and benefits packages) • Difficult to recruit
International	• Moderate teaching quality • Moderate teaching tenure (typically several years) • Potentially strong level of understanding of the culture and values of parent institution (as recruits come from extremely different cultural and professional backgrounds) • Relatively easy to recruit • Moderate potential to build research capacity	• Weak connectivity to parent institution • Potentially weak level of understanding of the culture and values of parent institution (as recruits come from extremely different cultural and professional backgrounds) • High cost (due to need to offer internationally competitive pay and benefits)
Local	• Long teaching tenure • Relatively easy to recruit • Low cost	• Low teaching quality • Weak connectivity to parent institution • Weak understanding of the culture and values of parent institution (as recruits come from extremely different cultural and professional backgrounds) • High cost (due to need to offer internationally competitive pay and benefits) • Low potential to build research capacity

Pay and Benefits

    The overwhelming majority of universities use direct incentives to attract staff to the IBC from the parent institution and from international sources. Many of these institutions offer

incentives in the form of salary premiums for international and seconded faculty. Evidence from the interviews indicates that pay can be not only effective as an incentive but as the most effective tool for attracting faculty. However, this statement taken at face value may be deceiving. Attractive compensation packages are one of the only meaningful tools IBCs have to compete for talent. While many universities compete with a slew of other benefits, such as research and advancement opportunities (as discussed in the next section), such opportunities are typically lacking at IBCs, leaving them to bargain only with pay and benefits.

Given its key role, compensation at IBCs is often substantial. While pay premiums among universities vary based on each institution's needs, interviewees reported that they are typically around 20-25 percent of base pay. Premiums may include adjustments based on the individual's salary and a country-specific premium in order to attract faculty members to campuses with greater need. The level of flexibility over pay standards also varies significantly by university. In some cases, maximum pay premiums were set by the parent institution as at one university in Europe which prohibited pay increases over 20 percent, while other universities set salaries on a case-by-case basis, either centrally or at the departmental level.

Pay premiums may be augmented by local laws which protect individuals from taxation, as is the case for many countries in the Middle East, including Qatar, which hosts eight foreign-operated institutions in an education hub known as Education City. As one interviewee noted, "Salaries in Qatar are tax protected and that's standard for all of the U.S. universities over there." Such policies can make positions at overseas universities much more attractive to faculty and thus help attract quality faculty to the IBCs.

Pay premiums are also critical in helping IBCs retain faculty. As one interviewee noted, the faculty at her university "get paid very well" and thus tend to stay "multiple years, with the average stay being [approximately] 3-4 years." Low salaries can also have the opposite effect. Interviewees from institutions paying lower salaries reported higher levels of turnover among faculty, although they made it clear that the turnover was not based only on pay, but on many factors including lack of research opportunities and how the faculty are treated more generally.

Faculty are also typically offered a benefits package designed to ease the burden of transition and provide them with "a reasonable living environment." The benefits package may include paid return tickets for the faculty member and family, housing and settling-in allowances, private schooling for children, private health insurance, and a car. These benefits vary widely based on

the individual institution and the resources available to them. While some universities offer generous and comprehensive packages that include most of the aforementioned items, other universities provide only the basic necessities such as airfare and housing.

Interviewees noted that when the parent institution designs pay and benefits packages, it is important to consider the preferences and desires of the faculty they are trying to recruit. Interestingly, housing was a point of contention at some of the universities included in this study. In some cases, the university arranged housing for faculty which the faculty found to be inadequate, inconvenient, or otherwise displeasing. Thus, a benefit aimed at easing the transition for faculty and providing them with a reasonable living environment ended up inconveniencing them and ultimately made them less willing, rather than more willing, to come back in the future. In terms of housing, greater success was reported among institutions which gave faculty housing allowances and permitted them to make the choice among several on-campus or off-campus alternatives. While allowing staff to make choices about where they will live may not be possible in some cases, offering some level of choice does appear to be preferable when circumstances allow.

Research and Cultural Environment

In addition to the pay and benefits offered to faculty at IBCs, several indirect benefits also serve an important role in attracting and retaining faculty. The research and cultural environment at the IBC, for example, plays a particularly strong role as do factors relating to promotion opportunities and even the location of the campus itself.

As one interviewee at a United Kingdom-based institution argued, in order to "get your best staff to go there, [the branch campus] needs [a] research angle." This, she explains, is largely due to the fact that "promotion within our English system is very much driven on research. Despite what we may say publically, the best teachers don't get the rank of professor and the salary that goes with it [just by being great teachers], so there has to be some research there." On a similar note, an interviewee at another university explained that he thinks it is "very important that [faculty] feel that they can make scientific or business contacts [in the local community]."

Opportunities for Career Advancement

Opportunity for career advancement was also offered to potential faculty at IBCs. Some universities, for instance, offered faculty the opportunity to advance from lecturer to professor, a

promotion which they could carry back with them to the parent institution. While none of the universities represented in this study offered a tenure system at their IBCs (because they would not be able to absorb the additional staff at the parent institution in the event of a closure), several were in the process of creating other promotion schemes. As one interviewee stated, "we're now trying to put together a three-[pronged], multi-year contract with promotion based on research, teaching, [and] service."

While a system of recognition and promotion was key to helping many institutions retain high-performing faculty members, the absence of such a system, on the other hand, often made retaining qualified staff difficult. As one professor explained, without opportunities for advancement, faculty are often forced to leave as they would be committing "career suicide" (as he labeled it) to stay at the same institution indefinitely with no hope for promotion. If these faculty members were ever to apply for a job at another institution, he explained, the institution would want to see a record of promotion and advancement. Without those opportunities, faculty members often have no choice but to leave the IBC after a short time and pursue advancement opportunities back at the parent institution or elsewhere.

Campus Location

The interviewees noted that the location of the campus itself is often a key factor in successful staffing. When considering a position at an overseas campus, prospective hires must examine the institution's proximity to various cultural activities and international schools, the local culture within which it is embedded, and the cost of living.

The availability of international primary and secondary schools is also important for recruiting faculty. The interviewees reported that if no international school exists, the universities often are not able to attract faculty with school-aged children. If a school does not exist within a reasonable commuting distance to a proposed IBC site, planners must decide whether they want to forego a potentially large pool of faculty applicants, build a school themselves, or choose an alternative site.

Many interviewees noted that it is easier to attract faculty and staff to IBCs located in areas with a wide variety of things to do, cultural resources, and an easily accessible transit system. Some institutions in more remote or less desirable areas reported difficulties attracting faculty and staff. Conversely, IBCs located in highly desirable locations such as Europe reported that

they were able to attract and retain faculty relatively easily without large premiums in terms of salary or benefits.

Appointments

An alternative to competitive recruitment is appointing faculty to teach at an IBC. Given the fact that many staff are unwilling to work abroad for a period of time due to various personal or professional reasons, a growing number of parent institutions have either already implemented or are considering implementing a mobility clause which gives the university a contractual right to require staff members to teach overseas for a period of time. Such arrangements enable universities to draw upon their existing faculty base for overseas positions as needed rather than constantly recruiting qualified home-based faculty or international staff.

Many of the institutions represented in the study selected their IBC faculty and staff through a centrally located human resources department; others simply relied on the various academic departments to select a faculty member to send to the overseas campus. While giving greater autonomy to departments in choosing who to send often creates less friction, the departments may also have their own incentives to send staff based on factors not directly related to the needs of the IBC. Some interviewees noted that they may, for example, send their lowest-performing colleagues (whom they'd prefer not to work with) or ones whose personal situations make it easier for them to go. Such factors could compromise the quality of teaching at overseas campuses and should not be overlooked.

Notably, coerced secondment, whether direct (through appointments) or implied (through departmental pressure, for instance), may result in a sense of resentment among faculty due to the negative implications it may have on their professional and personal lives. This, in turn, may impact faculty morale and the quality of teaching at the IBC. If appointments are used, moreover, it was most common for administrators to allow staffing decisions to be made locally (typically at the department level) rather than centrally. One faculty member interviewed noted that he preferred this model as it gave his department the opportunity to send abroad those who would benefit the most (or suffer the least).

Ensuring the Quality of Faculty and Staff

The interviewees noted that institutions considering IBCs must think about what they will do to ensure the quality of the IBC relative to the parent institution to avoid damage to the parent

institution's reputation and signal to students that the education obtained at the IBC is of a similar quality to that obtained at the parent institution. In this section, I will discuss some of the findings pertaining to the ways in which parent institutions seek to ensure quality at their IBCs.

In selecting and training staff, interviewees said that it is important that various quality control measures be put into place. One way to ensure the quality of staff members at overseas campuses is to require that they be able to meet the hiring standards of the parent institution. As one interviewee explained, "if it is the same professor who has given [a course] on two campuses, then, I think it's automatic that the quality will be the same." The bigger problem, he continues, "will be with the professors that we attract, especially for the branch campus." To ensure their quality, the parent institution must make sure that it evaluates the professors using the same criteria used to hire faculty at the parent institution.

Many of the interviewees stated that the parent institution was involved in the selection process, particularly for the selection of professors and various high-ranking administrators. Notably, however, most hiring decisions for lower-ranking administrative and clerical positions were made exclusively at the IBC. At these levels, administrators reasoned, local staff were better equipped to evaluate local applicants and localizing such decisions was thus more efficient.

Another way of ensuring quality is through the use of induction and/or mentoring programs for the new hires which immerse them in the home institution for a certain period. Through these programs, new hires are able to see first-hand how things are done at the parent institution and bring these expectations with them to the IBC. Staff hired directly into the IBCs typically come from very different cultural and professional backgrounds with correspondingly different ideas of what it means to be an academic. While the personnel and travel-related expenses associated with such programs often make them costly, they are arguably very valuable in ensuring that staff—no matter where they come from—understand the culture of the parent institution and its expectations for teaching, research, and service.

Regular communication among staff at the parent and branch campuses is also important for ensuring quality and consistency across campuses. When operating in multiple countries, there is risk that institutions will develop into independent silos rather than operate as branches of one network, and that quality will be compromised. Many administrators noted that regular communication, either in person or through technology, was key. Several reported making at

least one or two face-to-face visits to the IBCs every year. Additionally, modern technology such as videoconferencing and Skype helped facilitate better communication among parent and branch campuses and was widely used.

Faculty and student exchange programs are another way of ensuring the quality of faculty at IBCs. Fly-in faculty serve as sort of informal auditors at the IBCs and, upon their return to the parent institution, they report on the teaching quality at the IBC in relation to teaching at the host campus through formal or informal channels. Students also serve as a sort of control. As one interviewee noted, "if we send students to [the branch campus, we do not want them to] come back and say the quality is lower there." For this reason, he argues, measures to ensure consistency in the quality of teaching must be in place.

Finally, universities can establish standardized evaluation systems to compare the academic programs at parent institutions and IBCs and serve as a sort of quality check. Several interviewees, particularly those from universities in Europe, reported that their students all took the same exams no matter where they were located. In many cases, the exams were also centrally graded. Such measures worked to ensure quality across campuses as all students had to pass some threshold level of achievement. One interviewee noted that they compare the examination results of students at the parent and branch campuses in order to make sure that there are no systematic differences. In a similar vein, one interviewee mentioned that they looked at outcomes like student graduation and employment rates at both campuses. This helped them to evaluate the quality not only of teaching at the IBC, but its more general, overall quality as well. In terms of faculty performance, many universities reported the use of student surveys to measure teaching quality and student satisfaction at the IBCs.

Summary

Table 11 summarizes the findings from the interviews related to operationalization.

Table 11. Summary of Findings from the Interviews: Stage 5, Operationalization

Related Factors	Considerations in Operationalization	Challenges
Additional course and program planning	• Offering one level of study first and then expanding (graduate, undergraduate) • Requirements/options for students to complete program entirely at IBC or spend time at parent campus (source of additional revenue) • Adapting course offerings and content to local context to improve attractiveness/usefulness of IBC degree • Following same calendar as parent institution or as host country • Respecting host country's customs and religious and national holidays	• Extensive resources required for undergraduate programs • Difficulty students may have obtaining visas • Religious, personal or family obligations that prohibit students from studying at parent campus • Accreditation requirements that prohibit certain changes to academic programs • Maintaining quality of short courses • Schedules that conflict with parent institution schedules
Sourcing faculty and staff	• Seconded faculty (usually from parent institution sent to IBC temporarily) • Fly-ins (often from parent institution) • Local hires • International hires	• Short tenures and low continuity in teaching • High costs due to travel and airfare expenses, salary premiums, benefits • Recruiting difficulties • Low teaching quality • Weak connectivity to and understanding of parent institution • Low potential with local hires to build research capacity

Table 11, continued

Related Factors	Considerations in Operationalization	Challenges
Attracting and retaining faculty and staff	• Ability of parent institution to offer compensation and benefits such as paid housing to compete for talent • Augmented pay in the form of local laws that protect individuals from taxation • Availability of research opportunities to attract top faculty • Opportunities for faculty to advance their careers through promotion or tenure system • IBC proximity to cultural activities and international schools • The culture, customs, and cost of living in host country • Ability of parent institution to draw upon existing faculty base rather than constantly recruiting	• Parent institution policies that restrict IBC pay and benefits • Difficulties of creating a research environment • Inability of parent institution to offer tenure to IBC faculty because parent couldn't absorb tenured faculty if IBC closes • Inability of IBC to attract faculty with school-aged children because no international school exists • Resentment among faculty who are seconded to teach at IBC
Ensuring the quality of faculty and staff	• Standardized hiring standards at parent institution and IBC • Induction and/or mentoring programs for new hires which immerse them in the home institution's culture and values • Standardized evaluation systems to compare academic programs at parent institutions and IBCs • Participation of parent institution professors and high-ranking administrators in IBC hiring • Regular communication among staff at the parent and branch campuses to ensure quality and consistency	• Poor quality that damages parent institution's reputation • Perception among students that degree from IBC is inferior to degree from parent institution • Expensive travel for induction/ mentoring programs

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Summary of Chapter Five

The purpose of this chapter was to identify the most salient findings of this study and discuss the insights about the IBC decision-making process that were identified in the study. The findings presented in this chapter provide evidence to answer the study's two research questions:

   1. What are the steps in the decision-making process that HEIs go through when making decisions regarding whether or not to establish an IBC?

   2. What key factors do HEIs use to evaluate a potential IBC?

Many interesting findings emerged regarding research Question 1. While the conceptual framework proposed that parent institutions would first evaluate potential countries in which to open an IBC, for instance, the evidence revealed that parent institutions almost always evaluate options presented by partners instead, rarely pursuing IBCs completely independently. The findings pertaining to this research question will be the sole focus of Chapter Six, "Applicability of the Conceptual Framework." Chapter Six will discuss the findings related to the *process* of establishing an IBC in-depth (as opposed to the *factors*) and compare them to the conceptual framework proposed in Chapter Three.

The interviews also revealed several *factors* that were important in the decision-making process. These factors can be grouped into five main categories: consideration; opportunity identification; gathering support; screening, decision-making and planning; and operationalization. Tables 6-11 in this chapter address the second research question of this dissertation by summarizing the factors that firms consider when considering the establishment of an IBC.

Chapter Six: Applicability of the Conceptual Framework

Overview

The study revealed a number of ways in which the conceptual framework I proposed in Chapter Three (see Figure 2) accurately portrays the process by which institutions make decisions regarding IBCs and a number of ways in which the process differs. This section discusses the findings and offers a revised conceptual framework that integrates the findings of the interviews (Figure 5).

The discussion in this chapter is organized around the stages as defined in the revised conceptual framework. Table 12 below contrasts the stages in the first and revised conceptual frameworks; the discussion elaborates on the specific changes that were made.

Table 12. Comparison of the stages in proposed and revised conceptual frameworks

Stages -- first conceptual framework		Stages -- revised conceptual framework
1.	Consideration	Consideration
2.	Gathering support	Gathering Support
3.	Country identification	Opportunity identification
4.	Screening	Screening, decision-making and planning
5.	Final selection	Operationalization
6.	Operationalization	

Stage One: Consideration

The conceptual framework in Chapter Three proposed that very early in the process of establishing an IBC, most HEIs will explore the question "Why establish an IBC?" Evidence from the interviews confirmed this. During Stage One, leaders and administrators considered the pros and cons of establishing IBCs within the context of their institutions' goals. While goals varied by institution, interviewees reported that goals such as enhancing the institution's reputation, creating research and academic opportunities, gaining access to student markets,

altruism, and financial gain were among their primary motivations for establishing an IBC. The evidence also supported the idea that only institutions with prior experience in internationalization pursued IBCs. All of the institutions represented by the participants in the interviews already had active student exchange programs, relationships with international academic departments, and in many cases twinning arrangements, franchising agreements, or joint ventures.

In contrast to the first conceptual framework, the evidence from the interviews showed that consideration was not always the first stage in the process of developing an IBC. Some institutions did think about and articulate their goals for establishing an IBC prior to identifying any viable opportunities. But at other institutions, leaders and administrators revisited and retrofitted the institution's goals and strategic plan after an opportunity had been identified. Thus, the evidence suggests that consideration may be the second rather than the first stage in some cases and that the process is more often iterative than linear.

Figure 4. Revised Conceptual Framework for the Process of Establishing an IBC

1. Awareness
- Exploration of the positive and negative consequences associated with establishing IBCs
- Consideration of institutions' goals and discussion of how IBCs might (or might not) be a means to achieving these goals

2. Commitment
- Dedication to establish IBC by HEI leaders
- Demonstrated commitment to the IBC in institutional activities, budgetary allocations, and written policies
- Efforts to increase stakeholder engagement and buy-in

3. Opportunity Identification
- Identification of potentially viable opportunities to establish an IBC
- Negotiations with potential partners regarding what each partner would be expected to contribute in terms of finances, infrastructure, academics, personnel and other resources

4. Screening, Decision-making, and Planning

In-depth analysis of the social, cultural, political, economic and academic factors for the parent institution and parent country, host country, partners, and their interaction

Final decision regarding whether the IBC meets the parent institution's objectives and best leverages its available resources

5. Operationalization

Selection, development and adaptation of academic programs at the IBC

Faculty, staff and student recruitment

Preparation of building and support structures

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Stage Two: Gathering Support

The second stage in the process of developing an IBC is gathering support on the part of stakeholders at the university, including the president and other academic leaders, administrators, faculty, staff, and the Board of Governors or Board of Regents. The evidence confirmed that during this stage stakeholders show support for the IBC through financial support and activities to build ties with the host country. The evidence confirmed that engaging stakeholders and fostering their buy-in was a critical part of this stage.

The evidence also revealed new insights that were not identified in the first conceptual framework. First, the evidence showed that the extent to which stakeholders were involved varied. Some institutions included students, faculty, and a variety of other stakeholders in the decision-making process while others took a more top-down approach and included only the institution's leaders. The evidence also revealed the importance of specific leadership qualities during this stage. Specifically, administrators said that the courage, strength, and determination their leadership demonstrated in the process of establishing the IBC was critical. They noted that without strong leadership, they likely would not have been able to establish the IBC.

Stage Three: Opportunity Identification

The conceptual framework proposed that in the next stage institutions select several potential host countries, conduct preliminary research, and identify a country or set of countries for more in-depth analysis. Evidence from the interviews suggested that the process works differently. Parent institutions evaluate specific opportunities that arise, and the country in which the IBC would be located is tied to the opportunity. Since IBCs are very costly to establish in terms of both time and resources, universities rarely establish IBCs alone. They instead rely on academic and government partners to provide financial support and guidance on legal and academic requirements.

Preliminary analysis is therefore much more about identifying potential opportunities that are economically and academically viable rather than evaluating countries more broadly. Evidence showed that the quality of the partnership was just as important, if not more important, than the country. Leaders at institutions consider what the partner has to offer, what the partner would

require of them, and whether or not the partner would be able to uphold its part of the deal. Preliminary analysis during this stage typically focuses on factors that the university viewed as most problematic. Such factors varied by opportunity, but often included issues such as what academic programs the university would be required or able to teach, how much financial support the host could offer, and the rules and regulations that would govern the deal. If these issues couldn't be sorted out, the opportunity wasn't considered viable and negotiations stopped.

The evidence also showed that the process is much less rational than the conceptual framework suggested. Interviewees noted that the process is typically the result of several chance events rather than a planned process. Many opportunities were identified through the university's relationships and existing partnerships. Idiosyncratic preferences of leaders, such as affiliation with a particular host country, were also shown to play a key role in the decision-making process.

Stage Four: Screening, Decision-making and Planning

Since the process of establishing an IBC is much more iterative than I expected and usually involves the evaluation of specific opportunities rather than a more general, country-level screening, the screening (Stage 4) and final selection (Stage 5) stages from the first conceptual framework can be more accurately thought of as one stage that involves screening, decision-making, and planning. This is because the findings from the interviews indicate that final selection is not a separate stage but something that occurs during the screening, negotiating, and planning process. During this process, decision-makers identify additional factors that may be problematic and work with their partners to find a solution. If no solution is agreed upon, the negotiations typically cease and the IBC does not move forward. If the partners are able to sort out all the issues, however, university leaders then make a final decision regarding whether or not to move forwards with the establishment of the IBC. If they decide in favor of the IBC, a formal, written agreement is typically drafted and signed by all parties involved.

The analysis confirmed that prior to making a final decision, stakeholders at institutions considering IBCs conduct in-depth screening. They look at factors such as whether or not IBC can attract a sufficient number of students willing to pay a certain amount of tuition (based on tuition's contribution to the IBC's overall budget), how to adapt specific academic programs to the host country, what support services to provide students, and how to ensure the quality of the

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IBC. Notably, while the conceptual framework suggested that the factors that institutions consider can be organized into parent institution characteristics, host country characteristics, and factors arising from the interaction of these two entities, evidence from the interviews revealed that in addition to these, another set of characteristics are also important: the characteristics of the parent institution's home country (the "parent country") and of the partner or partners. These additions are illustrated in Figure 6.

Finally, the interviews also provide details about how university decision-makers who were considering the establishment of an IBC gathered the information they needed. They show that universities obtain information through four primary sources: (1) internal research; (2) independent, external research (i.e., research conducted by a consulting firm); (3) private, government, and academic partners; and (4) prior institutional experience. The extent to which universities gathered and used information from these sources varied. Some universities established large committees and hired independent consulting companies to rigorously evaluate potential opportunities; other universities relied more heavily on informal research and experience. The interviews did, however, reveal an increasing trend towards more extensive research. This is likely due to the increasingly high risks associated with failed IBCs and the fact that more information is available now. As more institutions pursue IBCs, there is also a larger pool of people with knowledge and expertise in establishing IBCs and examples for other universities to study. A growing amount of research on IBCs is also being conducted.

Stage Five: Operationalization

The final stage, operationalization, involves everything required to get the IBC up and running. Evidence confirmed that during this stage parent institutions select and develop academic programs at the IBC, hire faculty and staff, and develop support structures to ensure that the IBC continues to operate smoothly after the initial implementation. Interview evidence did, however, reveal that some decisions related to operationalization occur at earlier stages. The identification of feasible academic programs, for instance, is an important part of the screening and planning process. Evidence also found that the time it takes to get an IBC fully functioning is not to be underestimated. Several administrators stated that they spent much more time working on the IBC than they had anticipated.

Figure 5. Components of the IBC Screening Process in the Revised Conceptual Framework
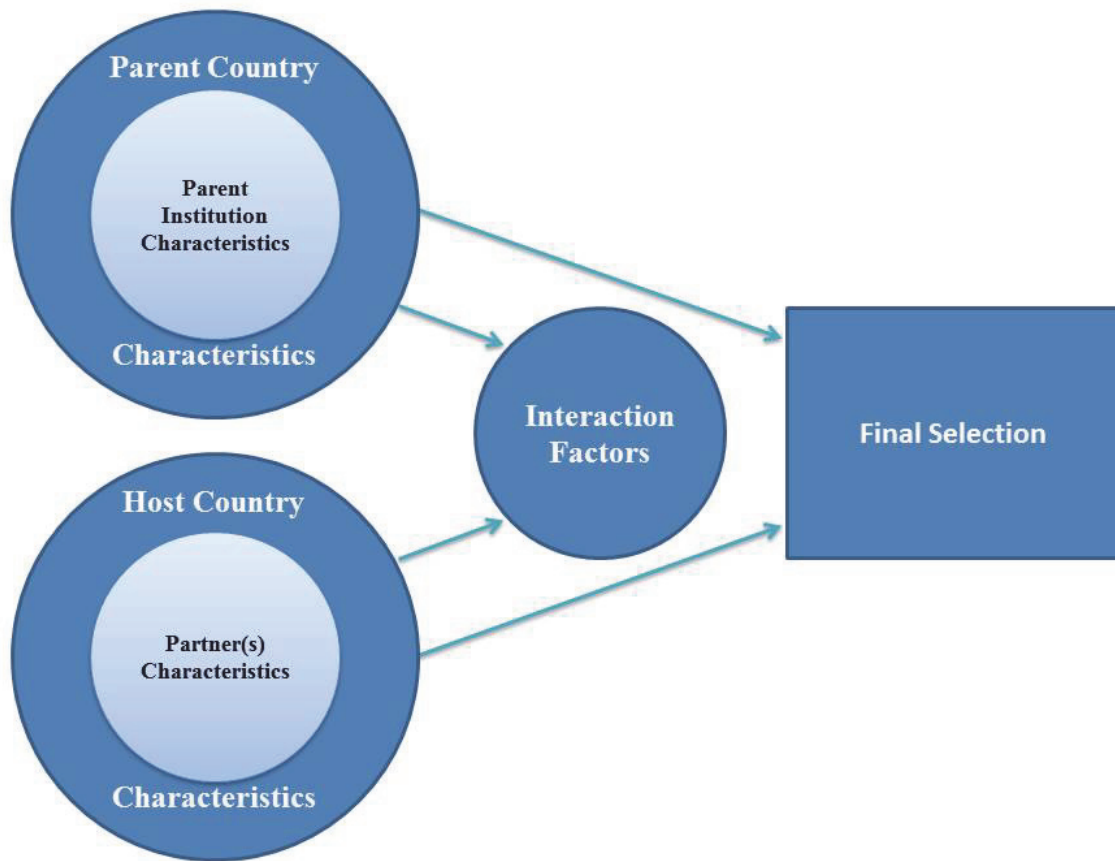
Summary of Chapter Six

The purpose of this chapter was to revisit the conceptual framework proposed in Chapter Three, discuss how the interview findings supported or refuted that framework, and incorporate the evidence from this study into a revised conceptual framework. While the interview findings support many aspects of the original proposed framework, the data also revealed several ways in which the actual IBC decisionmaking process differs.

The evidence from the interviews, for instance, showed that gathering support was not always the first stage in the process of developing an IBC. Some interviewees reported that leaders at their institution started the process of gathering support for an IBC only after the institution was presented with a viable (and often lucrative) opportunity to establish an IBC. Interviewees also reported the retro-fitting of institutional missions in order to justify the establishment of the IBC after the identification of an opportunity. This evidence resulted in an important change to the original conceptual framework proposed in Chapter Three. The evidence revealed that the first three stages--awareness, commitment, and opportunity identification--may occur in different orders at different institutions rather than linearly and sequentially.

The evidence also showed that the process is much less rational than the conceptual framework suggested. Interviewees noted that the process is typically the result of several chance events rather than a planned process. Many opportunities were identified through the university's relationships and existing partnerships. Idiosyncratic preferences of leaders, such as affiliation with a particular host country, were also shown to play a key role in the decision-making process.

Finally, the data also showed that the process of establishing an IBC is much more iterative than the conceptual model in Chapter Three suggested. Accordingly, the screening (Stage 4) and final selection (Stage 5) stages from the first conceptual framework can be more accurately thought of as one stage that involves screening, decision-making, and planning. This is because the findings from the interviews indicate that final selection is not a separate stage but something that occurs during the screening, negotiating, and planning process. The evidence showed that HEIs may identify additional factors that may be problematic during any part of the screening, negotiation, and planning process. If any of these factors prove unresolvable, an HEI may cease negotiations with the partner institution and not move forward with the IBC.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions, Policy Implications, and Future Research

Overview

As shown in this study, decision-makers at institutions considering IBCs face a number of important decisions. This study addresses many of those decisions and draws several important conclusions. In this chapter I summarize the main conclusions of the study and offer a discussion of the implications for public policy and some suggestions for future research.

Conclusions

Establishing an IBC is a Non-Linear, Iterative Process

Administrators and leaders did not move linearly through the process of establishing an IBC. Instead, while the overall momentum was forward, the process of establishing an IBC was characterized by significant back stepping, overlap, and repetition.

Back stepping was especially evident in the first three stages in the process: consideration, identification of opportunities, and gathering support. Evidence revealed that the first step of establishing an IBC in many cases was the identification of a viable opportunity rather than an examination of the university's goals and a discussion about how an IBC may help the university achieve them (or not). As a result, some interviewees reported working backwards after the identification of a promising opportunity and retrofitting their institution's goals in order to justify or better contextualize the IBC within the institution's strategic vision.

Many stages overlapped; they are not discrete. Leaders may take steps to demonstrate their support for the proposed IBC and increase stakeholder buy-in while administrators conduct more in-depth analysis to determine its feasibility. Since institutions often looked at more than one opportunity at once, moreover, institutions may be identifying new opportunities while simultaneously building support for or evaluating another opportunity.

Leaders and administrators, likewise, must often repeat certain steps. Changes to the proposed IBC, such as the decision to offer additional subjects or the partner's decision to cover operating expenses for ten years instead of five, may require administrators to repeat steps that have already been done.

Establishing an IBC is Not an Entirely Rational Process

The evidence revealed that the process of establishing an IBC and factors considered are not as rational as one might think. Identification of opportunities was often through alumni networks, existing relationships, and cold solicitation. Identification was therefore based more on chance and being at the right place at the right time than a more thoughtful and methodological consideration of all potential alternatives. Final decisions were also often based on non-rational factors such as the idiosyncratic preferences of leaders.

Negotiations Are an Important Part of the Establishment Process

Negotiations played a central role in the process of establishing an IBC. Leaders and administrators participated in negotiations to agree upon the services and resources each party would be expected to contribute to the IBC. Factors were typically addressed in a hierarchical manner based on what the involved parties thought would be most important for a particular opportunity. While for some the selection of academic programs was one of the biggest concerns, in other cases it was who would cover the operating expenses and for how long. If the two parties couldn't reach an agreement on key points, negotiations ended and the IBC did not move forward.

The Decision-Making Process Varies Among Institutions

The evidence revealed significant heterogeneity in the decision-making process among institutions. At some institutions, the decision to establish an IBC was primarily a top-down process, while at others the decision-making process involved multiple stakeholders.

Institutions also differed markedly in how they obtained information and their level of due diligence. Some institutions used third-party research, while others relied on their partners for information and even informal feedback from students and faculty.

The Decision-Making Process Varies by Institutional Characteristics

In Chapter Four, "Methodology," I argued that the following six factors might have an impact on the way institutions make decisions regarding IBCs:
- Type of parent institution (public, private, for-profit)
- Age of the IBC (new, planned, well-established, closed)

- Parent institution academic rank (Top 100, 101-500, 501+/unranked)
- Student body size at IBC
- Level of instruction at IBC
- Host country or region

The interview process revealed that this is the case. While I did not design the study to compare and contrast specific decisions by institutional type, I was able to use the data obtained in these interviews to test some of the statements I made regarding how decisions might vary based on institutional characteristics. In this section, I outline some of the statements I made in Chapter Four and analyze the extent to which the evidence supports or refutes them.

Type of Parent Institution

Statement One: Public and private institutions differ with regard to how they can use funding

The interviews revealed differences in funding needs based on institutional type. Many of the public universities noted that they were not able to spend the university's money on opportunities abroad. For instance, one university leader from a public, U.S. institution stated "I can't spend [the parent institution's state] money on these kinds of projects [IBCs]." Any opportunity his institution pursues must have facilities and operating expenses fully paid for by another partner entity. This requirement limited the institution's options relative to some of the private institutions in my sample which often used at least some of their own institution money to fund the IBCs.

Age of the IBC

Statement Two: The process of establishing an IBC has changed significantly over time

While institutions established decades ago tended to rely more on informal research and anecdotal evidence to establish their IBCs, this study noted a trend towards increased research and rigor among the institutions that recently planned or established IBCs. This is likely due to a heightened awareness of the risks involved and increased scrutiny among stakeholders at the institutions that are considering IBCs.

Interestingly, HEIs that had previous experience establishing IBCs (ones that had either multiple IBCs or closed IBCs) also showed evidence of different decision-making processes. Planning was arguably reactionary and seemed to be a response to previous experience. One institution, for instance, declined an opportunity because the partner would not give them

autonomy to select their own academic programs, which was something they found necessary to achieve enrollments given changes in demand for certain academic programs. Another university whose first IBC offered undergraduate degrees opted to offer only graduate programs for its second IBC, citing the ability to run the program with fewer staff and student services. Universities with prior experience in establishing IBCs seemed more sophisticated, in general, in how they approached the process and had specific people and systems in place for managing IBCs.

Parent Institution Academic Rank

Statement Three: Higher-ranked parent institutions had more opportunities to establish IBCs

The evidence from this study supports the statement that higher-ranked universities have more high-quality options to establish IBCs relative to lower ranked universities. A former administrator at one top 100 institution noted that "we probably were approached on average of at least once or twice a week." Leaders at lower-ranked institutions did not indicate nearly the same level of solicitations. Additionally, interviewees noted that an IBC in a major hub is often by invitation only and limited to universities with certain rankings (usually top 100). Universities interested in having a campus in the hub, moreover, reported having to apply for a spot in the hub.

Statement Four: Reputational concerns are prevalent among higher-ranked institutions

The evidence in this study supports the claim that higher-ranked parent institutions often factored in the impact of the IBC on the institution's reputation more heavily than did lower-ranked institutions. All the top 100 institutions (from the Shanghai rankings), for instance, cited the impact of the IBC on their reputation as a primary consideration in establishing the IBC. While lower-ranked universities also considered reputation, they more often expressed hope that the IBC would improve their global profile and reputation rather than concern that the IBC would harm it—a frequently cited concern at higher-ranked institutions. Interestingly, the interviews also revealed some evidence that faculty opposition to the IBC was more prevalent at higher-ranked institutions. None of the faculty and leaders at the lower-ranked institutions I interviewed expressed opposition to the IBC while some interviewees at higher-ranked institutions expressed opposition to the IBC and said that they thought it was just another way to

make money. They did not think that the IBC would improve the reputation of the university and expressed concerns that the IBC would actually tarnish the university's reputation.

Student Body Size at IBC

Statement Five: The target number of students impacts the decision-making process

The interviews revealed some evidence that student body size was a factor in the decision-making process. Several leaders at parent institutions with new or planned IBCs noted that the success of their institution's IBC is highly contingent upon their ability to meet recruitment goals. This impacted their decision-making process in two main ways. First, as the provost of one U.S.-based institution explained, his institution specifically chose to set up a smaller program because leaders at that institution thought it would be less risky to start small and then expand rather than start large and have to achieve large student numbers rapidly in order to be financially sustainable. Secondly, many institutions reported placing greater emphasis on student recruitment in the planning process relative to other factors. Such institutions reported thinking carefully about how many students they thought they could reasonably recruit in a specific time period, the implications of not meeting student targets as planned, and what they would do if they were not able to recruit as many students as quickly as planned. Some institutions also reported placing a heavy weight on factors such as how long a host country partner would be willing to cover their operating expenses. Institutions were particularly apprehensive about opportunities that would require them to recruit a large number of students rapidly.

Level of Instruction at IBC

Statement Six: The level of instruction impacts the process of establishing IBCs

The evidence from these interviews suggested differences in the process of establishing an IBC based on the level of instruction. Most notably, graduate programs required significantly fewer resources and student activities relative to undergraduate programs since most universities consider extracurricular activities, such as student clubs and sports, an essential part of the undergraduate experience but less important for the graduate experience. Undergraduate programs presented challenges to universities if they were establishing IBCs outside of hubs. Leaders expressed difficulties and concerns regarding their ability to offer a similar level of student support services and activities as the home campus. For universities that choose to

establish in hubs, however, this was less of a problem as the hub often offered shared student facilities such as sports arenas and common areas.

<u>Host Country or Region</u>

Statement Seven: The geographic location of the IBC has an impact on its development and operation

There was significant support in the literature for geographical variation in the process of establishing an IBC. Parent institutions with planned or existing IBCs in Asia, for instance, expressed significant concern about the willingness of Asian students to pay Western tuition rates that were much higher than rates at the national universities. For IBCs in the Middle East, however, student willingness and ability to pay was not reported as a significant issue. In fact, in some cases, the host government covered the tuition expenses entirely.

Regional cultural differences and cultural distance also impacted the decision-making process significantly. Most of the parent institutions with existing or planned IBCs in the Middle East and Asia expressed a significantly different establishment and negotiations process than those with IBCs in Europe. The parent institutions noted a greater need for sensitivity to and understanding of the business and educational culture as it was much different than the cultures of the U.S.- and U.K.-based parent institutions.

Interestingly, Edward Hall's (Hall 1989) notion of high-context and low-context societies provides some interesting insights into cultural distance and how it impacts the IBC decision-making process. Hall, a prominent anthropologist and cross-cultural researcher, argued that cultures can be described as either high-context or low-context. In high-context cultures, relationships are extremely important, face-to-face communication is highly valued, and non-verbal communication is frequently used. In contrast, in low-context cultures, business interactions are less about the people involved and more task-oriented, speech is more direct, and non-verbal communication is less important. These differences help explain the differences between societies in terms of how people relate to each other, how they communicate with each other, how they treat space, how they treat time, and how they learn.

Applying Hall's notion of high-context and low-context cultures reveals some important insights regarding how culture impacts IBC decision-making. Under Hall's framework, the United States and United Kingdom are low-context societies, while the Middle East and Asia are high-context societies. Interviewees noted significant needs for cultural adaptation to the high-

context societies of their IBCs. Institutions with branches in the Middle East, for instance, explained that it was often necessary to know someone to get something done, as business was highly dependent on personal relationships. Universities with IBCs in China noted a need for greater consideration regarding how certain words or actions may be interpreted and more relationship-focused business interactions and non-verbal communication. One leader from an institution with an IBC in China noted that "when we first went out, we would leave a meeting not quite sure of what was agreed. I think the Chinese were far cleverer than we were in these negotiations. They would come back [to us and say] 'This is what we agreed.'" This interviewee noted that this caused confusion in the negotiations and that "we were perhaps more passive in meetings than maybe we would have been with an American," due to the cultural communication differences. One university with a branch in China noted that their partners acted negatively towards the inclusion of an exit clause in their legal contract. While such clauses may be normal in the United States, their partners in China reacted to it unexpectedly. As the president of a U.S.-based institution with a campus in China explained, "There was a lot of… very, very different cultural expectations that the U.S. side and the Chinese side brought to the table and I remember very directly the president of [our partner university] saying, 'You're playing to get divorced before we ever get married.'"

The Role of Specific Factors Varies by Opportunity

This research demonstrates that it is important for parent institutions to consider the unique social, cultural, political, economic, and academic factors relevant to each country when establishing an IBC to increase its chances of success. This is because the success of the IBC is just as much about the how the characteristics of a particular IBC will interact with its environment rather than the mere presence or absence of specific factors. This means that the factors most important in one context may not be relevant in another or may even have the opposite effect. It also means that what works in one country, may not work in another. Because each opportunity to establish an IBC is unique, the success or failure of one endeavor is hardly generalizable. Also, given that several factors are involved, it is difficult to identify after the fact exactly what factors contributed to the success or failure of a particular IBC. A careful understanding of the context is thus very important.

The Long-term Impact of IBCs is Unknown

While leaders and administrators at institutions cited specific objectives for establishing an IBC such as enhancing their institution's reputation, there is little to no evidence about whether IBCs actually achieve these goals or are better at achieving these goals than less costly and less risky alternatives.

Some of the interviewed administrators were skeptical about the ability of IBCs to achieve their stated goals. They questioned how association with lower-ranked institutions in developing countries could improve the parent institution's reputation. They were also unsure how leaders and administrators could create additional research and academic opportunities by locating in regions where these opportunities are relatively lacking.

IBCs are Inherently Risky

While this dissertation provides information on the process of establishing an IBC and the factors most important to consider when establishing an IBC, it is ultimately impossible to understand and control for all the risks involved in establishing an IBC. Instead, IBCs require risk-tolerance and decision-making based on imperfect information.

Establishing an IBC is Time Intensive

An overwhelming number of interviewees stated that establishing an IBC took far more time than they initially expected. Their IBCs required several back-and-forth negotiations with potential partners, construction of appropriate facilities, selection and development of degree programs, rapid student, faculty, and staff recruitment, and in most cases, obtaining accreditation. Many of these tasks required significant coordination among international actors and the navigation of new legal and academic regulations. Institutions considering IBCs need to be aware of the incredible amount of time establishing IBCs often entails and understand the associated opportunity costs. Leaders and administrators also have to be aware of the indirect costs to the parent institution in terms of staff time and salaries even if partners pay the IBC's operating expenses.

Staffing Models Vary Based on Parent Institution Characteristics

Decision-makers will want to consider the ideal mix of faculty from the parent institution, from the host country, and from international sources. Each source has advantages and

disadvantages (see Table 10). The right mix depends on the unique needs of the parent institution, its goals, and the impact of the faculty mix on student life at the parent institution and IBC, the quality of instruction, and the parent institution's reputation.

Decision-makers will also want to consider several factors related to the specific goals of the IBC. If the main objective is to replicate the experience that students have at the parent institution at the IBC, then faculty from the parent institution should play a larger role—but attracting them is often difficult and costly. On the other hand, if the parent institution wants the IBC to be more reflective of the host country and local area, and if costs are a concern, it may rely more heavily on locally hired staff—but they may fail to meet the academic standards of the parent institution. If the goal is to brand the IBC as a prestigious, world-class institution, then fly-in faculty are crucial as it is often only through this approach that institutions are able to convince their highest quality academics to teach overseas for a period of time. If continuity and quality are the primary goals, internationally recruited staff should play a key role.

Attracting High Quality Faculty Can Be Challenging

Pay and benefits packages are arguably the most powerful tool with which IBCs can compete for staff, but they may not be enough to attract the most accomplished academics because pay and benefits are typically not number one priorities for academics. Rather, evidence suggested that their main priorities are often research and advancement opportunities. As many IBCs are expressly teaching institutions, such opportunities are often non-existent. Those institutions that ultimately intend to be research institutions are typically not yet able to compete with established research institutions. This is because most IBCs are new and have yet to develop the high-quality research environment faculty demand, and they cannot build it overnight.

This creates a circular dilemma: to attract the best faculty, you need high quality research, but to build high quality research, you need the best faculty. If IBCs want to attract and retain high-quality faculty, they must overcome this dilemma. While appointments may afford the parent institution a certain number of high-quality faculty from the home institution for some time, the long-term sustainability of the IBC will arguably be contingent upon its success in providing an attractive balance of the features faculty overwhelmingly demand: ample pay and benefits, a desirable living environment, plentiful research opportunities, and significant advancement opportunities.

While administrators and managers of IBCs can certainly benefit from the insights shared by the interviewees, they should keep in mind that staffing decisions depend on their own specific agendas and unique problems. It is important to note that while many lessons may be applicable, one size does not fit all.

Policy Implications

IBCs are a growing part of international higher education. They offer students in the host country and the surrounding region the opportunity to pursue more plentiful and diverse educational opportunities. They are also often key components of host country initiatives to build a more educated citizenship and prevent brain drain. Given the importance of IBCs, decision-makers at parent institutions and host countries need to consider carefully issues related to equity, program selection, and quality.

The government-sponsored establishment of IBCs to promote access to high-quality higher education opportunities in regions such as the Middle East requires careful consideration of their distributive effects. Traditionally, students from wealthier families tend to study at universities at higher rates. Given the public funds often devoted to IBCs, consideration regarding what student groups benefit the most from IBCs is important. If public funds are used to establish IBCs but they are accessible only to the wealthier citizens of a host country, then their presence could be exacerbating inequities. Scholarships or other subsidies to students on the basis of need can help ensure access for disadvantaged groups.

Parent institutions and host countries should select programs based on their contribution to the labor market rather than on the basis of their ease of establishment. Host country partners also need to take care to solicit universities to establish programs that are better than local alternatives or that provide an education for students who will be employed in a newly emerging industry. The ability of the labor market to support IBC graduates is also important. If IBCs graduate too many students in market sectors where there are no jobs for them, for instance, the students could leave their home countries for work opportunities abroad, resulting in "brain drain."

Objective ways to evaluate the quality of IBCs are necessary. Right now, IBCs are not evaluated as independent institutions by third-party entities. Students instead base their opinions mainly on the reputation of the parent institution or parent country even though IBCs may differ

significantly from their parent institutions. Informal evidence and word-of-mouth also help students determine the quality of IBCs. More objective ways to evaluate the IBC should be explored. At the same time, efforts to improve quality must not create unnecessary burdens on IBCs and their parent institutions. Right now, dual accreditation and other requirements are causing great strain on IBCs, which typically have limited staff. In crafting policies to better ensure quality, the ability of staff at IBCs to respond to those policies without unnecessary strain will be important.

Suggestions for Future Research

While this study took the perspective of administrators and leaders at institutions considering IBCs, research focused on other stakeholder groups such as students at IBCs, parents of students at IBCs, and host country partners will be important to creating a more well-rounded understanding of the process of establishing an IBC. Information from host countries, for example, on how they identify and evaluate potential parent institutions to establish IBCs in their countries would be interesting and help create a more well-rounded understanding of the process.

Additional quantitative research would also be beneficial. Specifically, appropriate outcome measures for IBCs should be identified and data collection measures put in place so researchers can examine the progress of IBCs and compare their outcomes. Right now, student enrollment and persistence are two main data points measured, but even this information is not consistently or publically shared. More data on outcomes such as graduation rates, employment statistics, or research productivity should be collected. In selecting data to collect, however, consideration of the appropriateness of certain measures is necessary. While the percent of faculty receiving Nobel prizes, for example, may not be a good metric for a newly established IBC, other input-related factors such as the percent of fly-in, seconded, and internationally recruited faculty, student qualifications, admissions statistics, scholarship aid, etc. may be appropriate and useful.

Another important limitation of this study lies in its exclusion of the very relevant margin represented by institutions that decided not to establish an IBC. Future research to address this group would be useful. There are likely important differences in the characteristics of universities that pursued IBCs versus those that didn't. Certain institutions, for instance, may be more likely to establish IBCs due to their global focus, international experience, and higher risk tolerance. Research that compares institutions that considered establishing an IBC, but ultimately

did not, to institutions that moved forward with the IBC may highlight some of the important differences between the two groups. Study designs that use quasi-experimental studies comparing these two groups may also help researchers better understand whether the IBCs were successful in their stated objectives such as enhanced reputation and revenue.

Much work also remains to understand how different parent institution, host country, and interaction factors lead to positive long-term impacts for IBCs. While this study identified several factors universities consider when establishing an IBC, additional research on what factors are most associated with the success of IBCs would be very valuable. IBCs could then be developed based on some of the characteristics that research has suggested may matter. Future research might also explore differences in student outcomes among students studying at IBCs to help identify the characteristics of IBCs that best contribute to positive student outcomes.

Finally, while this study attempted to make some basic comparisons of the decision-making process based on specific characteristics of HEIs, the limitations of the comparisons that were possible in this study suggest potential benefits of future research focused on specific ways HEIs with different characteristics approach the decision-making process. Future research, for instance, may focus on differences in the decision-making process between public and private institutions or elite versus non-elite institutions.

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Appendix A: Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

Introduction

As part of my doctoral dissertation in policy analysis at the RAND Pardee Graduate School, a private, higher-education institution co-located with the RAND Corporation, a nonprofit research institution in Santa Monica, I am conducting a study on the factors universities find most critical in evaluating the feasibility of a proposed international branch campus (IBC). The purpose of this study is to identify and evaluate the key factors a higher education institution takes into consideration when evaluating a potential IBC location abroad. As part of this study, I am conducting interviews with several higher education administrators responsible for making the decisions regarding the establishment and operation of IBCs. In these discussions, I will focus on fact-finding questions regarding IBCs, their implementation to date, and the contextual factors that support or hinder their operations.

The results will be published as a dissertation in 2013. I will keep the information you provide strictly confidential. I will not share your responses with your employer or anyone else outside of the project. I will also not identify any individuals by name in my dissertation. Individual responses will be combined with others and reported only in the aggregate. If quotations are used in any written documents, they will be included only for illustrative purposes and will not be attributed to any individual. At the end of the study, I will destroy any information that identifies you.

Your participation in this interview is voluntary. You may choose not to participate, decline to answer any question, or stop the interview at any time. Also, please feel free to tell me if you would like to share information with me that you would like me to keep "off the record." I will not include that information in my dissertation.

With your permission, I would like to audio record this interview, so I can ensure that I maintain an accurate record of our conversation. At the end of the study I will destroy all of our interview recordings.

May we record this interview? This interview will take about 45 minutes to one hour. Do you have any questions before we begin?

Background

    1. Individual

        i. What is your role at [Institution X]?

        ii. How long have you had this role?

        iii. What was your experience before assuming this role?

    2. Institution

        i. Prior to the establishment of its international branch campus[es] (IBCs), did [Institution X] have any other internationally focused programs such as international student exchanges or summer research programs?

Location Decision

    3. Goals/Mission

        i. What were your institution's goals in establishing an IBC?

            1. Probes:

                a. What did you expect to accomplish? (build capacity, aid development abroad, strengthen global networks, tap into new markets, etc…),

                b. What were the perceived benefits?

                c. What were the perceived potential disadvantages?

                d. What were the perceived risks?

        ii. How successful has the establishment of your location abroad been in helping you achieve these goals?

        iii. Do you use any metrics to track your success? If so, what are they?

    4. What attracted you to establish an IBC [Country X]?

        i. Academic factors (ex: accreditation, quality assurance organizations)

        ii. Financial factors (ex: financial assistance from host government)

        iii. Cultural factors (ex: cultural similarity of parent country and host country)

        iv. Resource factors (ex: highly educated population to draw upon for faculty and staff positions)

        v. Infrastructure factors (ex: technological infrastructure, transportation infrastructure)

vi. Other factors

5. What other locations did you consider?

6. Why did you choose the [Country X] over the other options?

Challenges and Enablers

7. What are some challenges to establishing and operating an IBC in [Country X]?

8. What are the factors that have been particularly helpful towards your efforts to establish and operate an IBC in [Country X]?

Academic Programs

9. What academic programs do you offer?

10. How did you decide what academic programs to offer?

    i. Probes: Did the needs of the host country, student demand, or institutional mission influence you in any way?

11. What academic programs have been the most successful? Why?

12. How do you measure this success? Are there any specific evaluation tools or metrics in place?

13. What do you do to ensure the academic programs at the branch campuses are of the same quality as those at the host institution?

14. Have there been any concerns about the academic quality at the international location relative to the home institution?

    i. If so, what are they and do these concerns come from within the host institution or outside of it?

15. What changes have you made to the parent institution's academic curriculum to suit the needs (cultural or otherwise) of the student population at the IBC?

16. Has the IBC taught you anything that caused you to make changes to the institution in the parent country?

Students

17. Please describe the students at the school in terms of their

    i. Demographic background

ii. Financial means

iii. Ability to meet the host country's academic standards

18. How many countries are represented in your student body at the branch campus?

19. What countries/regions are most of your students at the branch campus from?

20. Why do these students choose your institution over other local and international alternatives?

i. How did you get this information? Word-of-mouth? Student surveys? Feedback from recruiters or admissions committees?

21. Have you experienced any gender-related issues at the IBC such as low female enrollment? If so, how have you addressed this issue? What student services do you offer to meet the needs of students? Have you had to modify services to meet the needs of students from different cultural backgrounds than the home campus? (If so, provide some examples)

Physical and Human Resources

22. Where do you recruit your faculty from? Do they come mainly from your host institution or do you hire locals as well?

i. Have you had any problems recruiting faculty. If so, what were the problems and how have you tried to overcome them?

23. How do you recruit for staff and administrative positions?

i. Have you had any problems recruiting staff? If so, what were the problems and how have you tried to overcome them?

24. Have you experienced problems in relation to physical resources such as rooms, labs, equipment, power supplies, computers, books and journals?

i. If so, what types of problems?

25. What currency do the students pay in? What currency are salaries paid in? What if there is a drastic change in the exchange rate of the local currency versus the currency of the mother institution?

Impressions

26. What do you see as the overall strengths and weaknesses of operating an IBC?

27. What excites you about [Institution X's] IBC?

28. What are your concerns about the IBC?

29. Are there any important considerations regarding the operation of the IBC that you believe were missing from your institution's implementation plan?

30. To what extent do faculty and other staff at the parent institution support the IBC?

      i. Probe: Why do you think they might feel this way?

31. What feedback have you received from the students?

      i. Quality of instruction

      ii. Usefulness of instruction

      iii. Student life

Relationships

32. Generally, how would you characterize your institutional environment?

      i. Faculty-student interactions

      ii. Interactions among faculty

      iii. Faculty-administrator interactions

      iv. Student-student interactions

33. What is the level and type of communication between the IBC and the home campus?

      i. Interactions among faculty

      ii. Faculty-administrator interactions

      iii. Student-student interactions

      iv. Student-administrator interactions

      v. Student-faculty interactions

34. Can you tell me about a time when cultural differences between the host country and parent country caused a problem or misunderstanding?

35. How would you characterize your institution's relationships with the local community in general? How about the local academic community?

36. How would you characterize your institution's relationship with the government of the host country?

i. Probes: Is the host country supportive (in terms of accreditation, funds, legal issues, etc…)? Have political conflicts or instability in the host country ever caused any problems?

Communication

37. What language(s) of instruction do you use in communicating in [Country X]?

38. Are there any language requirements for the students at the time of recruitment?

Final Comments

39. What advice would you give to an institution considering establishing an IBC?

40. Do you have any final thoughts or comments that you would like to share with me?

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Appendix B: Codebook

Code	Description	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria	Example of Included Text	Example of Excluded Text
Motivation	Text pertaining to the parent institution's purpose or goal for establishing the IBC. May include motivations including but not limited to reputation, finances, research, religious mission and academic opportunities. Can include discussions about the pros and cons of establishing the IBC, the risks involved, and alternatives to establishing the IBC related to motivations.	The text must include details regarding the parent institution's purpose or goal for establishing the IBC related to its reputation and image, finances, academic, religious mission, research, or other factors.	Do not include text pertaining to the goals of the host country for trying to establish the IBC, text pertaining to sources of funding for the IBC, or text pertaining to what constitutes a viable opportunity. Do not include text discussions regarding the risks, pros and cons of establishing an IBC relevant to identification or screening. Do not include text pertaining to operational goals of the IBC regarding issues such as such as student enrollment goals, faculty recruitment, or academic programs.	"I believe that this campus [the IBC] will elevate our institutional prestige…Most of the U.S. universities that are pursuing arrangements like this, or some variation of this, are more elite U.S. universities. So it was, in part, an opportunity to play a role reaching a little bit beyond our grasp." Establishing an IBC is "about reaching students [in the host country] who you would not otherwise reach, it's about creating new opportunities for staff and students from the [parent institution], it's about new research opportunities [for students and faculty at both campuses]…"	"Our goal really is to build an international experience in [the host country]. In other words, if you were to go to the [IBC]…, you'd think you were at an international university. So that's why the student ratio is about 50 percent students [from the host country] and 50 percent other international, including U.S., students." "[The host country is] using us in not subtle ways to build up their own country and to build up their own education system."

Gathering Support	Text pertaining to how stakeholders developed support for and gained approval for the development of the IBC at the parent institution and potential host country through actions such as a change in the university's mission statement, financial investments, creating new administrative positions related to potential IBCs, or otherwise. May also include text pertaining to the leadership qualities that supported the establishment of the IBC. May also include text pertaining to support for or opposition to the IBC among leaders, administrators, faculty, staff, and students and how institutional leaders engaged stakeholders, and fostered buy-in among them. May also include text about whose approval was necessary for the establishment of the IBC.	The text must pertain to statements, opinions, actions and characteristics (i.e., leadership qualities) of stakeholders at the parent institution prior to the final decision to establish the IBC.	Do not include text pertaining to attitudes, opinions, and actions of stakeholders towards and opinions of IBCs several years after their establishment.	"For us to go to somewhere else and set up a campus...the management board needs to assess it. They set up a task force to consider the advantages and disadvantages,...the risks involved....and other opportunities...Then, the IBC is discussed in a senate with...academic representations and unions." The parent institution established a position to "work directly with the president of the university and the provost to help get [the parent institution] to explore and establish overseas relationships." "…the vice chancellor believed that to work in [the host country] successfully we needed greater intelligence and he did two things. One was to recommend that we appoint [a native of the host country] as our chancellor, which we did. That gave us this kind of foothold in [the host country] in terms of intelligence. [The Chancellor's] background was that he was an academician…[and] the former president…of [one of the host country's] strongest universities." "…you really do need kind of strong leadership with a vision to do these kinds of things. You see the successful ones that we hear about in the U.K. have that level of confident leadership. It's the same with the U.S. NYU, for example, has quite bold, strong leadership."	"thing that I think made us successful is we had staff there all the time and that meant the student experience was good. The students actually could talk to the guy who gave them the lecture at any time during the year." "…there was a lot of hand wringing about [the IBC]…It's been harder for us to make it sustainable and people on the Board, who are principally business people, want every piece of our operation to be successful and supporting itself. The rest of us have argued that as long it's not a serious financial train wreck, honestly, it's such a contribution to our mission for us have an outpost in [the host country] that it would really undermine our mission as a global university if we gave that up just because it was falling short by a couple of hundred thousand dollars or million dollars every year."

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Identification	Text pertaining to how the parent institution identified potential opportunities to establish an IBC. May include details regarding how opportunities arose from existing relationships such as existing academic partnerships with other universities or alumni. May also include details regarding invitations from host countries based on rankings, experience, or reputation abroad. May also include text pertaining to how institutions identified potential partnerships and the qualities they sought in a partner (i.e., funding provided, congruence of goals, experience, trust, etc.).	The text must pertain to details regarding how the parent country identified potential opportunities to establish an IBC.	Do not include details regarding how opportunities were evaluated, only how they were identified.	"An appreciation, I think, of what American higher education can offer, a realistic appreciation of that on the part of our [host country] partners and the areas where they may offer strength for a joint venture institution are crucial." "We probably were approached on average at least once or twice a week when I was there. I assume that calls have continued to come from all over the world." "Arguably you'd find a number of partners with that interest. So I think you then come down to a lot of questions about what their more specific objectives are. You need an alignment of more specific objectives, issues around capacity, [and the] ability to support."	"When we were looking at the projects we set some criteria by which we were measuring the opportunities that we were evaluating, things like what's the regulatory framework, what's the government view of it, how difficult is it going to be to do business in this location or that location. I have to say [the country we choose] in general, as a location to do business and our particular kind of education project, was more favorable than [our other main option]. The highly complex regulations and national and local government structures would have been very, very complicated to navigate. [The country we choose] is quite complicated and bureaucratic, but it's easier than it would have been to work in [our other main option]. So anyway, we evaluated these projects and backed this one."

Screening Selection	Text pertaining to the factors the university considered when screening and selecting opportunities to establish IBCs. May include factors related to the host country such as its level of available resources, infrastructure, political environment, or stability. May also include text describing factors relating to the interaction between the parent institution and host country such as cultural distance or practical considerations regarding travel and communication.	Text pertaining to factors a parent institution considered when screening and selecting potential opportunities.	Do not include text relating to the evaluation of the parent institution by the host country. Also, do not include text pertaining to identified opportunities that were not more seriously evaluated. For example, a discussion about how an institution received an invitation from a host country but did not further evaluate it due to factors such as inadequate resources or political instability would be considered part of "Identification", not "Screening_Selection"	"We analyzed the invitation and we realized that the high school students [in the host country] are trained very well. They score high OECD research about secondary education and we saw that the [host country's] university landscape was a little bit different than ours and so we thought that we could offer something to [the host country's] students that is different. " "On the various visits—and I visited quite a lot of places—I soon ruled out [one of our options] because of the margins [the difference between what they could charge for tuition and the cost of providing the education] and more important, because of corruption. It was very difficult for me to see how I could do it."	"We've been approached by several potential partners in China…but we haven't found a Chinese partner who actually has the understanding of the financial considerations…In other words, you get a lot of Chinese partners who are willing to build buildings but they don't have operating capital." "the reason we went with engineering was because that's what the government wanted. It's a mining area, so they wanted civil engineering…They also wanted nursing [and] gerontology since it's an area that people want to go to retire."

Academic_Programs	Text pertaining to the characteristics of academic programs. Includes details regarding the type, duration and intended audience of a program. Also includes text describing the rationale for the selection of a particular academic program or adaptations made to academic programs offered at the parent campus in order to make it more suitable for the IBC.	The text must pertain to details regarding academic programs and courses. Includes descriptions of the type of students who tend to enroll in the programs, challenges professors face in delivering the program, and cultural considerations related to the program selection and/or implementation.	Do not include text pertaining to the quality assurance of academic programs, student recruitment, or faculty and staffing requirements.	We choose this particular academic program because "the interest and engagement among faculty here was very high. There were already people working on issues of [the host country]. Also, there was interest among the folks in [the host country] and perceived demand among students...So there was kind of appetite here, interest there and a sense that the student demand would be very high."	"get your best staff to go there, [the branch campus] needs [a] research angle." "if we send students to [the branch campus, we do not want them to] come back and say the quality is lower there."

Faculty_Staffing	Text pertaining to faculty and staff teaching and working at an IBC. Can include information on staffing models, attraction, retention, pay, and benefits.	The text must pertain to details regarding faculty and staff at the IBC.	Do not include text pertaining to relationships or attitudes towards of faculty at the IBC. Do not include text about the quality assurance of academic programs.	"The academic staff that will run the campus over there will by definition be academic staff recruited according to [the parent institution's] standards. So this means that everybody who is teaching over there could have been teaching over here. We will not lower out standards, but it doesn't mean that those persons have a tenure job at [the parent institution]." "We will set up a tenured system at the branch campus, but it will not guarantee a tenured spot at [the parent institution]."	"if it is the same professor who has given [a course] on two campuses, then, I think it's automatic that the quality will be the same."

Quality_Control	Text pertaining to actions and policies to ensure the quality of academic programs at the IBC, including text pertaining to accreditation. Also includes text relating to ensuring consistency in the quality between the parent and branch campuses. This may include the standardization of exams or admissions requirements at the IBC and parent institution. May also include faculty and staff perceptions of the quality of the IBC after its establishment.	The text must pertain to details regarding quality control at the IBC.	Do not include text pertaining to metrics of success for academic programs. Do not include text related to the quality of faculty or students. Do not include text about how IBCs select academic programs or what programs they can offer at a high-quality level. Do not include opinions about the IBC prior to its establishment.	"We will have our own 'cycle of visitation,' as we call it. That accreditation body comes over and visits and evaluates the program... The cycle of your accreditation is the cycle of your program plus two extra years, so...our accreditation will be valid from 2014 until 2020. " To ensure quality, "we do a graduate survey. We also do surveys, actually, as students' progress through their programs. There's actual annual monitoring and review goes on, so that's built into our quality assurance processes."	"you can do a master's's level program in a high quality way with much more focused attention both in terms of the number of faculty and the amount of time that the faculty are engaged."

Appendix C: Informed Consent

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DETERMINANTS OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL CHOICES OF INTERNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Providing Informed Consent to Participants

As part of my doctoral dissertation in policy analysis at the RAND Pardee Graduate School, a private, higher-education institution co-located within the RAND Corporation, a nonprofit research institution in Santa Monica, I am conducting a study on the determinants of the geographical choices of international branch campuses (IBCs). The purpose of this study is to identify and evaluate the key factors higher education institution takes into consideration when evaluating a potential IBC location abroad. As part of this study, I am conducting interviews with several higher education administrators responsible for making the decisions regarding the establishment and operation of IBCs. In these discussions, I will focus on fact-finding questions regarding IBCs, their implementation to date, and the contextual factors that support or hinder their operations.

The results will be published as a dissertation in 2013. I will keep the information you provide strictly confidential. I will not share your responses with your employer or anyone else outside of the project. I will also not identify any individuals by name in my dissertation. Individual responses will be combined with others and reported only in the aggregate. If quotations are used in any written documents, they will be included only for illustrative purposes and will not be attributed to any individual. At the end of the study, I will destroy any information that identifies you.

Your participation in this interview is voluntary. You may choose not to participate, decline to answer any question, or stop the interview at any time. Also, please feel free to tell me if you would like to share information with me that you would like me to keep "off the record." I will not include that information in my dissertation.

With your permission, I would like to audio record this interview, so I can check my notes for accuracy. At the end of the study I will destroy all of our interview recordings.

If you have any questions <u>about the study</u>, please contact the Principal Investigator, Megan Clifford, 1776 Main Street, PO Box 2138, Santa Monica, CA 90407, 310-393-0411, ext. 7107, or by email at clifford@rand.org.

If you have any questions or concerns <u>about your rights as a research participant</u>, please contact the Human Subjects Protection Committee at RAND, 1776 Main Street, PO Box 2138, Santa Monica, CA 90407, 310-393-0411, ext. 6124, or by email at Carolyn_Tschopik@rand.org.

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